

THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

For MARCH, 1789.

Letters, addressed to a young Gentleman, upon Subjects of Literature: including a Translation of Euclid's Section of the Canon; and his Treatise on Harmonic; with an Explanation of the Greek Musical Modes, according to the Doctrine of Ptolemy. By Charles Davy, M. A. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. in Boards. Payne and Son.

THESE Letters chiefly treat of the Greek language and of music, though some miscellaneous subjects are occasionally examined. They are generally intermixed, but we shall follow our author through each separately.

The first object of Mr. Davy's attention is the Greek verbs; and he simplifies the view of the different conjugations, as they respect moods and tenses. The imperative mood can have no future, because what is ordered must regard something to come, so that the whole mood and all its tenses must respect futurity. He is a little at a loss to explain why the optative has a future, since all that we wish is to follow. But a slight reflection will show that we wish any thing had been necessary, may or would become necessary, or that it shall be so. In reality, our wishes have as much regard to times present, past, or conditional circumstances, as what we predicate of any act in other respects. The explanation of the force of the tenses, and of the middle voice, which is supposed to be a reciprocal, and to refer to the person who speaks, is ingenious, but not wholly new. That the preterperfect is a present, inasmuch as it refers to an action completed at the present time, is more ingenious than solid or useful. The observations of our author's correspondent on the middle voice, so far as it is reciprocal or reflective, are judicious and accurate. The deponents, Mr. Davy observes, in Latin have often a similar, reciprocal force.

The subject which next attracts us is the accentual marks; and our author, with strict propriety, considers them as pointing out the different tones, independent of quantity. The accent is the pitch or tune of the syllable; the force of the voice is emphasis, and the duration of the sound is time or quantity. When the first syllable is sharp the succeeding one is grave, or the con-

Vol. LXVII. March, 1789.

M

trary;

trary; but we suspect that the grave accent at the end is not entirely equivalent to the acute on the beginning, for the position of the accents seems to mark the sound as indispensable to the melody. If the last syllable is grave, for instance, the former must be acute, but it is not required to be pointedly so; and if the first is acute, the grave is the natural fall, which is the consequence of the prior elevation, but there is no necessity for an exact attention to it. The circumflex, our author thinks, consists of both accents; and is placed over the omega, to signify that each *o* is to be pronounced differently. This, however, is merely hypothetical. Many authors have fallen into what undoubtedly is an error, that the sharper, as it is supposed to be a raised or continued tone, affects the quantity. In reality, as Mr. Davy alleges, it is not raised, but the whole syllable is pronounced with the same sharp tone; and we may, perhaps with more reason, consider the quantity as shortened. But, when we reflect on the difficulties occasioned, the deformity of the Greek page, crossed with unmeaning strokes, and the little utility of these accentual marks, we think they may safely be rejected in modern editions: this indeed is almost acknowledged in a subsequent letter (vol. I. p. 182 and 183).

Our author proceeds to emphasis, which he distinguishes with great care from tune, and from quantity. He then considers quantity at some length, and makes many pleasing and ingenious remarks on rhythmus, or the melody arising from arrangement. We shall extract his rules, though in English, where the quantities are so little understood, the arrangement may rather be left to the decision of a delicate ear unacquainted with prosody.

‘Upon the whole, the circumstances which constitute the agreeableness of rhythmus and verse when brought together, are as follow. In the first place it is requisite there should be a due adjoinment of long and short syllables, in composing the metrical feet. Secondly, a variety in each foot from its number of times, compared with the number of syllables of which it consists, due regard being had likewise to what are called the irrational times, whose proportions are not capable of being precisely ascertained.

‘Thirdly, A variety which arises from the order of sequence, respecting the long and short syllables of those feet in which the number of times are equal, as of the iambus and the trochee, which have each three times, the first syllable of the iambus containing only one time and its latter two, whereas the first syllable of the trochee contains two times, and the latter only one.

‘In the fourth place, the adjoinment of accordant feet: which must be done in such a manner as to produce the utmost variety

in

in the mixture of them, consistently with weaker feet being supported by the stronger; and, lastly,

‘A blending together of the several parts of each metrical foot, and uniting them in different words, so as to form them into a whole by a due adjoinment and union, and not merely a bringing the entire feet together, each in a distinct word, like beads upon a string.’

The proposal for judging of the character of a people from the rhythmus which they affect, is fanciful, but ingenious, and pursued with some success. Mr. Davy seemed to suspect that the Greek musicians constantly respected quantity in their notes; but it is probable, as he afterwards allows, (Letter XXXII.) that this was not always the case. Dionysius of Halicarnassus tells us, that in the following words, in one of the chorusses in *Orestes*, each syllable was sung in the same pitch of voice.

Σίγα, σίγα, λευκον.

This fact clearly shows, that quantity was sacrificed to expression, for the speech was designed to recommend silence; but it seems to disprove the double power of the circumflex.

The subject of accents is resumed in the second volume, and the perpendicular stroke is added to the other accents, from good authority. Mr. Davy supposes that it was designed to point out emphasis, and to this mark alone he supposes the rule of Cicero and Quintilian alludes, when they say that the Roman language does not admit of an accent on the last syllable. All accents on the last syllable, in his opinion, are disgusting, and he might have adduced many East Indian words which, in our new and more correct pronunciation, are extremely inharmonious and disagreeable. Many good remarks on accents, and the best rules of accentuation, occur in these Letters. As we have made some observations on the circumflex, we shall select our author's ingenious remarks on it, though we think they do not greatly affect our opinion, that it points out a long syllable: as in our abative in *ā*, formerly ending in *ai*, it may perhaps be a mark of contraction.

‘I have said, in more places than one, that the voice was both elevated and depressed by the circumflex, which is properly a double accentual mark. You will remember, therefore, that it can be placed only upon a long syllable, which contains two times, one of which must be assigned to its acute half, and the other to the grave portion of it; that is, one time to the elevation of the voice, and the other to its depression, or the sinking of it.

‘It is clear, from the same observation, that the circumflex could never be placed farther from the end of a word, than the penultimate syllable, whatever increase a word might admit of which seemed to require a different position of it; let us take

the word *σῶμα* for an instance, which having the circumflex character upon the penultimate, the *ω* must be pronounced nearly like two *οιμικρονς*, [*σῶμα*] with an acute upon the former, and a grave upon the latter, though flurd as it were together; if the genitive case of the same word was required, *σώματος*, this, according to a general rule, should retain the same original accent upon the same syllable, namely, the first; but if this were done, the word would appear to consist of four syllables, three of which would follow the acute, which, by the established principle, does not allow a sequence of more than two syllables; so that the latter part of the circumflex must be omitted, and the acute half of it only retained, or, according to the grammar rule, the circumflex must be changed into an acute, and the word pronounced *σώματος*, that is, the voice must not sink till the utterance of the second syllable *μα*, instead of falling upon the same syllable on which it was elevated.'

In the remarks on the Greek accents, Mr. Davy seems to have followed some plan, and by a little attention we have followed him with tolerable regularity. His musical criticisms are more miscellaneous; and his Letters on other literary subjects are the suggestions of casual events, or the disquisitions which he, at different times, directed to his sons for their improvement. In each capacity we see a sound understanding, a benevolent heart, and a correct taste. We must step over many parts, which have much pleased us in the perusal, without any notice, for we cannot mention every thing; and we must wait on our author but a little while, even where we are particularly interested.

In the second volume, there is a translation of Euclid's Canon, his Treatise on the Harmonic, and an explanation of the Greek musical modes, according to the doctrine of Ptolemy. These are executed with sufficient accuracy; but the reader, who wishes to examine it with attention, should read the postscript at the end of the second volume, for he will there find some embarrassing errors corrected. Yet our author has occasionally acknowledged, that the boasted power of the Greek music was owing to the sublime poetry with which it was connected. These treatises of ancient music are, however, sufficiently known: we must attend rather to the Letters.

The first miscellaneous Letter, on the subject of music, occurs early, and it seems to have been the first step of our author in the early part of his studies of the theory of music. It relates to the proportional divisions of musical strings, which are seven only; and from these seven the different sounds are produced. Mathematicians know that by any composition no different proportion is effected, and musicians, that no sound is produced but what is resolvable into the former notes. Our organs may,
in

in a more perfect state, be fitted to a different scale; and this extended enjoyment may be one source of future happiness: at present we can only wonder at the extensive influence of the number seven, which our author afterwards pursues in an analogy between the seven notes and the seven primary colours. The observations on the notes of birds, though not new, are pleasingly detailed: Mr. Davy, in his passion for music, connects it with delicacy of feeling in general, and would support Shakspeare's decision respecting the man who has 'no music in his soul.'—He agrees with the poet—'Let no such man be trusted.' We are not certain that the effects of music are to be traced to their accompaniments, with some variation from the rapid succession, or lively movements: it is still less certain that the pleasure arising from music is always connected with any succession or continuation of sounds. In these opinions Mr. Davy does not reflect on the power of melody, which has alone great influence in soothing the passions, and leaving a soft melancholy impression. To judges of melody, indeed, the note is continued, not so long as to fatigue the attention, but a sufficient time for the mind to rest on it: mournful harmony is of a similar kind, and generally in a flat key, while, in all lively music, the movement is rapid, the sounds are quickly and often suddenly varied. These alone will not, however, account for the different effects; and we can only approach to an explanation, occasionally, by the principle of association; and more frequently by the vibrations communicated to the nervous system, for nervous power must consist of the vibrations of an elastic string, or an elastic fluid. On the power of the human voice our author has followed an insecure guide: the aperture of the glottis is alone insufficient to account for all the variations of the human voice; the tension of the ligaments, and frequently of all the cartilages of the larynx must be added. The remarks on the modern style of rapid execution, and the tricks of instrumental music, with those on the impropriety of uniting, in one act of a concert, pieces of very different styles and effects, deserve attention. Kircher's theory of vibrations is explained very correctly; and the author's method of tuning a harpsichord is very exact. We had occasion to mention the manner employed by the best practical musicians, in our review of Mr. Cavallo's paper in the last volume of the *Philosophical Transactions*, which is the same with that recommended by Mr. Davy.

The following observations and facts may be easily separated from the rest, so that we shall transcribe the passage. The distinct vibrating parts we have often seen; but we have not observed the changes in these imaginary fulcra.

‘ There is a peculiarity respecting musical strings in vibration, which is extremely curious, such strings, I mean, as are perfectly formed with respect to a lameness in the continuation of their diameters, and a uniform goodness of the metal they are made of: when they are defective in either of these respects, they are said to be false, and must always give imperfect disagreeable sounds: the peculiarity I mean, is that a perfect musical string resolves itself into a certain number of parts, in the act of vibrating, the points between which, are relatively at rest, whilst the tone and tune of the whole is produced; and the reason why an inequality of its diameter in a portion of the string, or a badness of metal in any part of a musical wire causes a defect in the tone and tune of it, seems to be because every musical note being made up of certain harmonious parts, a partial inequality of the string, or defect in the metal of the wire, must occasion a partial discordance in the sound proceeding from that part, and disturb the vibration of those parts which make up the sound of the note; for a note is not one simple sound, but a combination of harmonious members, the most distinguished of which, are those of third, fifth, and eighth, with a fundamental tone as the basis. This automatical resolution of a musical string into such proportional parts, will, most probably, be looked upon as a supposition altogether imaginary; but the fact may, in some degree, be made evident to sight, by striking a musical wire of six or seven feet in length, properly strained over ledges, or what is called the trumpet marine, will exhibit different apparent openings between the several divisional points, instead of one uniform aperture of the whole wire, like the fibres of a single muscle; and these different divisions (if the eye is not deceived) appear to shift their places from one part of the wire to another, under one single impulse.’

The miscellaneous Letters are in general of a pleasing, cheerful, and instructive kind; but they are so entirely independent of each other, that we must use the liberty, which we assumed in the musical parts more freely, and step over those which appear to be of less consequence.

Mr. Davy's hint of one principle pervading all the politer arts (Letter XXII.) we should not have mentioned, if it had not been to recommend the pursuit of the enquiry: he endeavours also to rescue painting from the imputation of being an imitative art, and contends that one general system pervades all mankind with respect to the representations of action. Queen Elizabeth's oak, at Huntingfield, the last remains of the aspiring Tudor, is described with feeling and propriety; but we select it chiefly to observe, that on this occasion we are first introduced to our author as a poet, though in the humble guise of a translator. In general, his lines are clear, elegant, and harmonious, rather than spirited or warmly poetical. We find different attempts of the
poetical

poetical kind in these volumes, chiefly orations, and pieces adapted to music.

In the observation on dreams, Mr. Davy opposes the system which we have had occasion to adopt from the facility of exciting particular vibrations in an order before established, because if we do not misunderstand him, he perceives in dreamers an art and design inconsistent with these fortuitous excitements. We can only observe that our dreams, and we have carefully observed them for many years, have had no such art or design. We know that character, circumstances, and sentiments are preserved, for this obvious reason, that dreams are only the repetition of waking ideas. If immaterial spirits are employed to take advantage of the peculiar mobility of a given part of the brain, to excite a peculiar turn of images, we can only say, that they appear the most useless beings of the creation. From dreamers our author proceeds, for his transitions are often sudden and uncommon, to disturbed imagination. Saul's evil spirit was, he supposes, an epilepsy; and David, instead of an armour-bearer, was, in reality, he thinks, a minstrel in the court of the king of Israel.

The XXXIII^d Letter contains a curious, but not a new subject of discussion, how far Homer's poems were of Celtic origin. Mr. Davy could not reconcile the coarse manners and the unimproved arts of the heroes of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* with the more improved and perfect language. He, therefore, seems inclined to suppose, that Homer took the facts of an earlier æra, and explained them in the language of his own period. The mythology, however, though a most valuable part of the poems to a classical reader, must have been his own; and, at best, this subject will remain in antiquarian uncertainty.

‘ That the religion of the Celts (which is a presumption of their very high antiquity,) was received from the Israelites before the doctrine of the redemption of mankind by the sacrifice of a Mediator was corrupted among the Gentiles, is clear, in my opinion, from some of their religious ceremonies; the principal of which consisted in a veneration paid to the mistletoe of the oak, which, as it is commonly understood, has the appearance of a most ridiculous and unaccountable superstition; whereas upon the supposition of their having been instructed in the patriarchal doctrine of the Messiah, revealed in a particular manner to Abraham, from whose immediate descendants it is most likely they received it, every thing is clear, and agreeable to ancient usage. There are several passages in the scriptures which intimate the oak to have had some typical relation to divine worship; it was planted in the *proseuchas* not only of the later Jews, but before the days of Joshua the son of Nun, and its name in the radical letters of the Hebrew signifies the Deity himself. The reverence therefore of the Druidical priests for

the plant springing from the oak, which they cut off with great solemnity, and offered upon their altars, might be owing to its being considered as a natural emblem of that sacred Branch, as the Messiah in after ages was styled by the prophets, who was to take upon him a different nature than that from which he proceeded, and to become an expiatory sacrifice for the sins of the world. And the medicinal virtues ascribed to this plant, (which it is supposed even to this day to be possessed of) in the cure of epileptic disorders imputed to the influence of malignant dæmons, were probably derived from the same source, a tradition of the sacred Branch being sent for a healing of the nations, and to counteract the power of evil spirits.

‘I suspect you will think that I have been more than ordinarily dull in the detail of this conjecture, and that what I have advanced upon the authority of a nameless writer concerning the Iliad and the Odyssey, is extremely whimsical, if not altogether absurd. I shall not undertake to defend his opinions; they may afford you ten minutes amusement, and some little, as you see, may be said for them.’

An Essay on Principle in general, and its substitutes; the very particular, interesting, and pathetic description of the great earthquake at Lisbon; the examination of that principle which animates our inquiries and exertions in different arts and sciences; the difficulty to be overcome; as well as the triumph, or the indifference which arises from *la difficulté vaincue*, deserve more attention than our limits will permit us to pay. The Letters to Mr. Hingeston on the progress which the antediluvians probably made in different arts, are of less consequence, since the argument rests on the uncertain basis of etymology and allegory.

The Remarks, addressed to Dr. Gooch, on the manner of celebrating divine worship, in which our author speaks of the introduction of proper ornaments, of the superior veneration which a Gothic building excites in comparison of the most beautiful Grecian temple, though liable to be misunderstood, certainly contain nothing exceptionable, and many observations that are excellent. Sacred music has the full sanction of Mr. Davy’s approbation; and the voluntaries, he thinks, should be premeditated, perhaps precomposed, since every organist’s mind is not always in a proper train to produce what is suitable to the time. The ceremonies of the church of England, and its liturgy, when read with propriety, and not chaunted, are supported by the authority of our author’s fullest approbation.

Some other Letters, particularly the description of a water-spout, by Mr. F. Davy; the general influence of music on different animals; some absurdities connected by divines with the essential tenets of religion; with miscellaneous epistles, whose subjects

subjects are numerous, and too closely united to enable us to separate them, contribute to fill up these volumes. We have read them with much pleasure; and, if our author had not disarmed criticism in his preface, we think that we should have found as much merit, blended and debased with fewer faults, than have occurred in any similar publication, where the heart speaks without disguise, and where sudden thoughts are hazarded with the fullest confidence of a partial hearing as well as a candid examination.

A Treatise on Female, Nervous, Hysterical, Hypochondriacal, Bilious, Convulsive Diseases; Apoplexy and Palsy; with Thoughts on Madness, Suicide, &c. In which the principal Disorders are explained from anatomical Facts, and the Treatment formed on several new Principles. By William Rowley, M. D. 8vo. 7s. 6d. in Boards. Nourse.

IN our former acquaintance with Dr. Rowley, through the medium only of his works, we were accustomed to admire his intrepidity and success; intrepidity in making confident promises of cure in diseases usually found obstinate or intractable; and success with the aid of such remedies as were well known, and which had been repeatedly tried in vain. When we put his doctrines to the test of experience, we found the source of some of his mistakes a sanguine expectation, and an eagerness to see what he so much desired to take place. We had little doubt that he had deceived himself, and that he had not intentionally designed to mislead others. His present work we opened with better hopes: he had practised longer; his travels and his connections had been more extensive; above all, he had conquered the opposition at Oxford, and had become a member of that learned body. If in these schools he had learned nothing else, we expected that he would have been taught caution and diffidence; that having seen more, he would (we allude only to a rational and philosophical scepticism) have believed less. In some degree we have not been disappointed; but we still discover too great confidence in some plans of cure, and a rooted aversion against others, that we think have had the sanction of experience.

Dr. Rowley's title expresses the vast and extensive object of his researches. On each subject he is not a little diffuse: he describes symptoms at length under the different heads, accumulates formulæ with little discrimination, and relates the appearances on dissection, without referring to any authorities, except in a very few instances. For want of one general comprehensive plan, Dr. Rowley repeats incessantly what had been before said;

said; and, in order to supply every defect, medicines insignificant or beneficial, trifling or injurious, are enumerated together. The first disease, the chlorosis, he supposes owing 'to a depraved state of the fluids from repeated accumulations of what should have been discharged by the uterine vessels.' But we have more reason to suppose that weakness of the solids was the original cause of the retention: we are pretty certain that there is a *depravity* of the fluids; and if depravity did exist from the cause pointed out, it must be owing to plethora, an accumulation of red blood. Mænorrhæa is explained at greater length; and we are convinced, from frequent experience, that much injury has been done by quickly and injudiciously suppressing the discharge. Dr. Rowley is of the same opinion; though he refers chiefly to topical mischief; but we have seen more sudden and more violent effects in consequence of it. When our author comes to the treatment, it is with some indignation that we see the *terra sigillata*, the *bolus armena*, and the *sanguis draconis*, in this enlightened state of medical practice, enumerated among the remedies. Dr. Rowley has adopted the terrors of the college in rejecting the preparations of lead, a timidity inconsistent with his usual practice, inconsistent with reason, and with observation. We know that mischief may arise from the injudicious use of it; but, in the hands of a careful rational physician, who will interpose oily, or aromatic purgatives, it is very safe. Vomits our author is also afraid of, and the suggestion of Dr. Cullen respecting their use in mænorrhagia he opposes. We can however assure him (*experto crede*), that we have used them occasionally, with success, for the popular prejudice prevents the frequent use of this remedy. He warns us not to transfer the practice of one country on people of peculiar constitutions, in consequence, probably, of peculiar habits, too rashly and indiscriminately. We allow the caution to be just and proper; but may be allowed to hint our suspicions, that Dr. Rowley's practice in the army has taught him to use large and repeated bleedings, which he seems to have transferred too rashly to hysteria: his own caution may therefore be properly retorted. The greater part of the following paragraph, perhaps the whole, if our author will not insist on the blood being a primary cause, commands our attention from the good sense and judgment which dictated it.

'The state of the blood, form of body, their acting powers on the nervous system, and this again on that immaterial part called the mind, cause all the diversity of character amongst human beings, and has a great influence in the moral conduct of human life. Envy, generosity, illiberality, liberality, fortitude and timidity, placidity and irascibility, happy or unhappy

happy sensations, very much depend on the state of the blood; and the physician who most reflects, and best comprehends these diversities in human nature, will always be most capable of relieving diseases. To the discerning and observing, the physiognomy will convey much knowledge of human character, and it may direct a proper choice of remedies, more adapted to the various constitutions than is apprehended by those who idly fix one method or standard of cure to all objects that offer. He who acts more by the exigency of the individual cases in physic, than by the written directions of medical authors, will always best succeed in conquering diseases. There is an alertness in prescribing acquired by long experience, repeated reflection, and extensive practice, that no books can communicate.

Dr. Rowley's general plan, in chlorotic and nervous diseases, is to give constant laxatives, in which he seems to direct with great propriety; and mercurial alteratives, where we can see less foundation, and which, in our hands, seem to have done sometimes mischief. He has, in a few instances, avoided doing mischief by employing cinnabar and *Æthiops mineral*, mercurials which, perhaps, never did much good or harm. But he often employs calomel, a medicine of more active powers, though in small doses. We agree with him, that in hysteria, vomits are generally injurious, yet we sometimes direct them, when the benefit arising from the evacuation of acrid *saburræ* seems likely to counterbalance their mischief. Tonics will seldom be of service, and the great benefit must at last result from warm antispasmodics, joined with so much of a laxative as the constitution will support, which in hysteria is often such as will procure a moderate evacuation only. Opium, he observes, confirms the disease; but this is only true when laxatives are neglected. From Dr. Rowley's prejudice against this medicine, he loses the benefit of the most powerful antispasmodic and carminative in the whole materia medica. The following particular remarks on bleeding we shall transcribe.

‘ In the hysteric fit approaching nearest to the apoplexy, bleeding is absolutely necessary in all patients, except the old, pallid, dropfical, gouty, and extremely debilitated.

‘ The pulse, as too low, weak, and almost imperceptible, is a fallacious guide; the lower the pulse, the greater necessity for bleeding. No learned man would depend on the pulse, but be governed entirely by the other evident symptoms. The low and nearly imperceptible pulse shew the height of obstruction in the heart, vessels of the lungs, or a compression of the cerebellum.

‘ Bleeding in the occipital or jugular veins, or in the temporal artery, are most eligible, because they immediately empty the blood from the part affected, namely, the brain, and the
turgid

turgid face, and secures the patient, above all other means, from the danger and sudden fatality of the apoplexy. Not a moment should be lost; for loss of time in bleeding is the certain loss of life.'

We have transcribed this passage chiefly to enter our protest against the loose inaccurate manner in which it is worded, and to suggest our doubts, whether it is ever proper. For 'low' should be read slow, laborious, and depressed pulse, a mode of pulsation which every practitioner understands; but if this correction be admitted, we think no such symptom of true hysteria will occur: apoplexy may undoubtedly happen in hysterical constitutions, but then the disease is of a different kind. If the correction be not admitted, the whole advice will be, we think, injurious: with some experience, we have never seen the least necessity for such conduct, nor the least danger from omitting bleeding.

Dr. Rowley is no great admirer of the ancients: their medical philosophy, he thinks, was 'in general, assertions without proofs, ingenious reasonings without demonstrations, or conclusive experiments.' If this be his opinion, we cannot trust much to his *Historia & Schola Medicinæ*, a work, we apprehend, yet unpublished, in which there is a full account of ancient medical learning. Our author is a little defective in his proofs, for he advises dry diet in the pyrosis, as if the stomach was inundated, while, in reality, the water evacuated is discharged into the stomach from the glands, almost in the moment in which it is vomited. He speaks too of the dryness of the intestines as a cause of the colic. It were to be wished that he had occasionally reasoned more and speculated less. We cannot follow him particularly in his detail of nervous symptoms and their cure. He disperses fixed air in the stomach, intestines, and different parts, where, we suspect, experiment has never found it; and this system, as it is without foundation on the one hand, so it leads to no curative indication on the other. Among the intermitting symptoms, Dr. Rowley treats of a disease which it is not easy to reduce to the nervous complaints, viz. intermitting fever. But it seems chiefly introduced to say, that we need not wait for the repetition of the paroxysms, for that the bark may be given immediately; and to disseminate the superior power of white vitriol in this disease. We have always waited in this climate, and we would recommend waiting a little, since it cannot be in general injurious; and danger has at least been said to result from stopping the fever too soon: at the same time, when inconvenience may arise from the continuance of the paroxysms, there is no doubt but that the fever should be checked as soon as possible. White vitriol will, we know, cure agues; but experience has

not yet decided, so far as we have been able to discover, whether the cure by this means is safe and permanent: we suspect that it is both. Vomits are, however, of great service; and we think Dr. Rowley's system carries him too much out of the way, in rejecting them with such constant perseverance.

Madness, a subject of late unfortunately popular, is the next object of Dr. Rowley's attention. He speaks much of mental and corporeal attractions, in a manner which we do not always comprehend, of which we do not often perceive the application.

'Corporeal attractions are the assimilations and adhesions of constituent particles from nutrition, and their conversion into certain states of the blood and body peculiar to each individual, the effect of which is likewise called idiosyncrasia.

'The fat and corpulent attract and retain, from their daily food, abundance of oily particles, &c.

'The mental attractions and character are much dependent on form of body and state of blood.

'A gross habit of body produces indolence; slenderness, activity, and alertness; pallidness, debility, and slowness; floridity, warmth of constitution, and quickness of temper. The rudiments, or prima stamina of this natural variety, are formed perhaps in the embryo ab origine, while in the uterus, or in the vesicles containing the animalculum in the ovarium.'

These varieties constitute idiosyncrasy, and all the differences in the form and appearance of diseases in general, as well as of madness; but the manner in which this is effected, our author has not very clearly explained. Madness, in general, arises, in his opinion, from fullness of blood in the brain, the coagulation of the blood in that organ, from humidity in the brain, and from concretions: in reality, from whatever compresses or impedes the free communication of nervous influence, for we are told that there is no evidence of a secreted nervous fluid. But whether it be styled fluid power or influence; or whether it is air, as Dr. Rowley hints in section xxxvi. or æther, or the electrical fluid, according to other authors, it is not easy to comprehend how its free circulation is essential to the exercise of the mental functions. Yet it is, so far as we can perceive, a fact.—In our review of Dr. Monro's Nervous System, we pointed out the extent and freedom of the communications of the brain, as one cause of the superior mental powers of man; and wherever an actual permanent cause of madness can be discovered, it is in some circumstance which limits the extent, or prevents the communication between different parts of the brain. That melancholy is owing to relaxation and a diminution of mental exertion is a position more doubtful, and not supported by the other circumstances

stances of the melancholy temperament. The cure Dr. Rowley has not improved. He condemns emetics, which undoubtedly should not be so freely employed as some have recommended, but which are occasionally useful; and he rejects opium, which, with proper management, is an useful remedy. It is, however, unpleasing to reflect that general practitioners, whatever their characters may otherwise be, are unable to treat madness successfully, without the aid of those whose employment it more peculiarly is. This happens because that the cure depends on management more than medicine, and the management is only acquired by experience. The necessary medicines are few and inconsiderable. A drain from the head is generally proper; emetics occasionally; laxatives and camphor constantly; with opium sometimes at night, fill the pharmacopeia of the physician of maniacs.

The tract on Suicide is little more than a moral declamation on the subject; and the description of Cato's conduct is as applicable to the suicide as a translation of the disputed letters of Hippocrates, or the supposed madness of Democritus, was to that of mania, where it fills many pages.

In the account of convulsive diseases, Dr. Rowley gives a pathological view of muscular action, and of the different causes of convulsions. He speaks with propriety of the pretended efficacy of arnica, or cardamine pratensis, so idly extolled, as general remedies; but offers the recommenders of these insignificant medicines an ample revenge, by insisting on dry diet. The effects of animal magnetism he also very properly derides; and he acknowledges the receipt of a copy of their report as a favour from Dr. Franklin. Our author does not fail to introduce every man of eminence as one of his acquaintance.

We need not insist on Dr. Rowley's doctrines and practice in particular diseases, because we have already given the outline of his views on the subjects which have preceded. We must, however, mention one very singular opinion, that tetanus is owing to a sudden coagulation of the contents of the cells of the tela cellulosa of the muscles, from a sedative cause, and that the fatal effects of lightning may be attributed to a similar change. This change is not sensible after death, because this coagulation is a natural consequence of death, and appears to be the same in every dead body. We are, however, left in the dark, how a peculiar cause, not discoverable after death, can be ascertained. The cure is to be effected by antimony and mercury combined, for all others are said to be useless. Such are the great virtues of Plummer's pills. In the diseases of debility, though we may object a little to the diminution of the electricity of the body, we see much that we approve. In the apoplexy, the directions are

in general very proper: we think only that Dr. Rowley does not consider the nervous apoplexy so fully as such a very common disease seems to require, and does not point out, with sufficient discrimination, the distinctions.

Our readers will see, on the whole, that we consider this work as an important one, but as abounding with merits and errors. We have endeavoured to distinguish them, and can recommend Dr. Rowley as an useful guide, with the general restrictions that we have pointed out. We have occasionally checked a vanity which in some parts appears too glaring, and have selected particularly some of those opinions which we suspect to be less accurate, and whose influence we perceive to be extensive. The frequent quotations of unpublished works we think very reprehensible. To the *Schola Medicinæ* Dr. Rowley seems to have confined his accuracy, for he generally says that any subject, for which he refers to it, is treated more accurately there. In truth, many of the subjects in this volume are treated too vaguely and indiscriminately.

The History of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire. By Edward Gibbon, Esq. Volumes IV. V. and VI. (Concluded, from Vol. LXVI. p. 433.)

THE last Constantine tottered on the throne of the Byzantine princes, the capital of the East; for Mahomet II. the son of the second Amurath, was not less distinguished for spirit, knowledge, and judgment, than for those more subtle qualities of cunning and hypocrisy so often found on the eastern thrones, and so congenial to the nature of the eastern governments. His first steps were marked by the conquest of some neighbouring tribes; and his hostile intentions against the city of Constantine were urged on by the petulance and avarice of the Greeks. His sudden attempt to build a fortress on the European side of the Bosphorus, which he quickly accomplished, should have urged the Greeks to an immediate resistance; and, if the opinion of Constantine had been followed, the resistance would have been immediate if not effectual; but the policy of his ministers suggested different measures. The old scheme of reunion between the churches was revived, professedly for the immediate purpose of relief; and the defence was confined to the city. The naval assistance of five ships from the Adriatic gave spirit to the besieged, and taught them to condemn the naval tactics of their enemies; but the intrepidity and skill of Mahomet vanquished all opposition: after various attempts, the city was assaulted and taken; and the last Constantine, worthy of a better fate, was killed in the assault. The victory was attended with no immediate

diate and peculiar acts of cruelty : those which followed after some time may, perhaps, be attributed to a real or imputed conspiracy. The last remains of the Palæologi and the Comnenian races died undistinguished in the palace of Constantinople, which, under the corrupted title of Stamboul, corrupted perhaps from an abbreviated pronunciation of the latter syllables *, is still the capital of the Ottoman power, and the church of St. Sophia the chief mosch of the eastern empire.

To fill up the picture, it is necessary to contemplate the fate of Rome from the twelfth century, since the time when it was less connected with its more favoured rival, and maintained a distinct and independent state. We have formerly seen that it was under the precarious and temporary dominion of the successors of Charlemagne, while its spiritual sovereigns alternately tyrannised, were insulted, banished, or murdered. The temporal power of the popes was more openly assailed by Arnold of Brescia, and again restored by Adrian IV. with the assistance of the emperor; but on the reformation of the political state of Rome, the office of principal senator, for the dignity of the title of consul, tarnished by a promiscuous and improper distribution, seemed no longer an object of ambition, was occasionally exercised by Italians of distinguished character, or by the sovereigns of neighbouring kingdoms. In this way peace and order were in some degree restored, and Rome again began to rule over the neighbouring cities, though the turbulence of the Romans, and their impatience of a foreign yoke, occasioned frequent tumults and dangerous seditions. Yet these wars were the predatory attempts of a restless people, and often ended without effect, though supported or opposed by the German legions. The petty warfare is well compared with the early attempts of the first Romans struggling for a settlement, and for a limited tract, over which they might extend their dominion. The sovereignty, the sacred distinction of the successor of St. Peter, could not be hereditary; the elections, often influenced by tumults, and disgraced by opposite pretensions to a contested infallibility, was established in the cardinals about the end of the twelfth century, and the proceedings were shortened in the subsequent ones. But the restless and tumultuary disposition of the Romans drove the pontiffs from the capital, to fix their residence at Avignon, and they compensated for their absence by the institution of the year of indulgence, which brought numerous pilgrims, with no inconsiderable offerings to the church of St. Peter, in return for this stupendous advantage. The noble families of Rome, and the rise of the factions of the Guelphs and the Ghibelines, the distinc-

* This is at least as near the sound as the usual derivation *εις την πόλιν*.

tions of the families of Colonna and Ursini, conclude the LXIXth chapter.

The declining age of Rome is fullied with the disputes, the intestine wars of an aristocracy, the priestly tyranny of the popes, enlivened by the ray of Petrarch's genius, and the seemingly patriotic attempts of Rienze, who, possessing little steadiness, and less judgment, lost that ground which his spirit and patriotism had obtained. His æra is a bright spot in the falling and eclipsed state of the city, but it appears to be temporary though brilliant. Porcaro, with less prudence and success, stumbled in the threshold, and was soon checked in a similar career. The popes, though revered abroad, and occasionally tyrannical at home, were often the slaves and the victims of a turbulent nobility, or tumultuous mob. The firm hand of Sixtus V. which for a time restrained these enormities, could not last for ever. The source of the weakness and the misconduct of the ecclesiastical state is shortly explained by the historian in his usual comprehensive style.

A Christian, a philosopher, and a patriot, will be equally scandalised by the temporal kingdom of the clergy; and the local majesty of Rome, the remembrance of her consuls, and triumphs, may seem to embitter the sense, and aggravate the shame of her slavery. If we calmly weigh the merits and defects of the ecclesiastical government, it may be praised in its present state as a mild, decent, and tranquil system, exempt from the dangers of a minority, the follies of youth, the expences of luxury, and the calamities of war. But these advantages are overbalanced by a frequent, perhaps a septennial, election of a sovereign, who is seldom a native of the country: the reign of a young statesman of threescore, in the decline of his life and abilities, without hope to accomplish, and without children to inherit, the labours of his transitory reign. The successful candidate is drawn from the church, and even the convent; from the mode of education and life the most adverse to reason, humanity, and freedom. In the trammels of servile faith, he has learned to believe because it is absurd, to revere all that is contemptible, and to despise whatever might deserve the esteem of a rational being; to punish error as a crime, to reward mortification and celibacy, as the first of virtues; to place the saints of the calendar above the heroes of Rome and the sages of Athens; and to consider the missal, or the crucifix, as more useful instruments than the plough or the loom. In the office of nuncio, or the rank of cardinal, he may acquire some knowledge of the world, but the primitive stain will adhere to his mind and manners; from study and experience he may suspect the mystery of his profession; but the sacerdotal artist will imbibe some portion of the bigotry which he inculcates.

If we contemplate the city itself, we shall see marks of ruin and devastation on every side. The natural causes of de-

struction, time and weather, inundations and fire, were less fatal than the Gothic invasions; and these were less destructive than civil contests. Together, they almost reduced the capital of the world to a heap of ruins; and the classical tastes of the different pontiffs, tastes cultivated in the seclusion of convents, formed on the purest models of the Augustan age, could alone, in the moments of peace and tranquillity, give a form and consistency to the remains. The admirers of Rome, in its best æra, will hear with indignation that its choicest or most magnificent works were burnt to lime to cement the walls of a convent; to contribute to the seclusion of those who might have been ornaments of the world, or at least would probably have been useful to mankind. Yet though bigotry, the most fatal cause of perversion and destruction, has been added to those whose power is proverbial, and almost irresistible, Rome continues to be the admiration of the western world. Its claims to honour, reverence, and respect are too deeply founded to be destroyed, either by hurricanes, by earthquakes, by fires, by inundations, the hostile attacks of barbarians or bigots, by avaricious fraud, or by domestic seditions.

THUS has our historian traced the Decline of the Roman Empire, and pursued the eventful story to its downfall. Animated by a portion of his fire, by the interesting facts which he records, by the fascination of his style, and his philosophical spirit of investigation, we have followed him in nearly an unbroken abridgment; and, when we now come to review the whole, which we have only ventured to do after a careful and exact enquiry, we feel an awe, mingled with admiration and respect, which makes us wish to decline the remainder of a task that has in its progress been interesting and entertaining. But this part is as essential as the other.

Though we have professed to admire Mr. Gibbon, and though we should bestow no inconsiderable praises on his work, if even praise were not, in some instances, impertinent, we must not be blind to his errors, or endeavour to screen them from the public eye. His faults are numerous, and sometimes attended with the most important consequences: these we must examine with a little regularity.

In the vast outline which the historian has drawn, comprehending not only the history of the Roman empire, but that of the various nations of Europe, Africa, and Asia, more or less immediately connected with it, there must have been no little difficulty of preserving the objects distinct, of giving to each its proportional share of attention, and uniting the discordant parts in a clear and consistent whole. This difficulty will appear to be greater

when

when the various collateral knowledge required in the different investigations be considered; and when we reflect, that of this incidental information our historian possesses his full share, and brings all his varied stock to the illustration of his subject. When we have put this difficulty in its fullest view, we may, without great injury to Mr. Gibbon's credit, remark, that we think some parts are unreasonably and disproportionally extended; the story often unnecessarily broken, and the connexion not always preserved with sufficient care. The geographical part, the descriptions of countries, the genealogies of families, and the histories of individuals, are subjects which occasionally fill a larger space than their importance to the fall of Rome demand. But this remark, which truth has drawn from us, as impartial critics, we must counterbalance by observing, that these subjects, the two former particularly, are the most pleasing, and the most instructive parts of the work: we cannot wish that they did not exist, because they are truly valuable; but we wish that they could have been collected in distinct dissertations. In the latter volumes, the separations of the different subjects are much too numerous; and it is not easy to pursue the connection, but by the æras on the margin, which are sometimes wanting when we most need their assistance. If it was necessary to consider each state distinctly, when its relative magnitude and importance rendered it superior to the Roman empire, it would have been more consistent with the proper composition of history, to have shortened those parts which have less connection with the principal subject, and to have kept that more closely and steadily in view. At present, for many succeeding chapters, a careless reader would think, that the historian treated of every thing except what related to Rome or to Constantinople.

In the conduct of the narrative, our author is often singularly happy in seizing those striking characteristic circumstances, those peculiar traits of character and situation, which render the facts clear, interesting, and impressive: in this Mr. Gibbon seems to have no equal; and if he ever fails, it is from some little defects which we shall mention of style, and sometimes from an apparently artful impediment, to prevent the hurry of a careless or an inattentive reader. There are some sentences which seem designedly scattered, to force those who would understand the narrative to reflect, or occasionally to refer.

In the delineation of characters Mr. Gibbon is also without an equal, perhaps without a rival. His history of Julian is animated with the glow of partiality: Athanasius is delineated in the most vivid colours, and pursued, in his various warfare, with the eagerness of a warm attachment: in the latter ages, the casual appearances of spirit and ability in those which fill the chair

of the falling empire, or the patriarchal throne, call forth all the historian's anxiety, and hurry him on with almost the zeal of a partizan. Yet here we must notice a lasting blemish, which will obscure his fame, and make us regret that learning and talents have been alloyed by the fashionable philosophy of the continent. The opposers of Christianity are treated with a lenity, at least suspicious, and often obviously partial; nor, in the various disputes of ecclesiastics, can we find one instance of respect to those who zealously support the cause of religion, without being followed by a sneer levelled at the subject and the contenders. It is not enough that these sarcasms are confined to the subject, when it is expressly considered by the historian; but in an incidental observation he can tell us, that he knows but one religion, 'where the God and the victim are the same;' while describing the progress of pious pilgrims of the Low Countries, he can stay to mention their astonishment 'at finding, in a mosque or synagogue, *one God* worshipped, without a *partner*, or a *son*.' In a moral view, we must occasionally object to our historian, that state-necessity is considered as some apology for the worst of crimes.

These are defects which friendship cannot defend, nor partiality elude; which no abilities can hide, or the most extensive learning apologize for. We are sorry that we are still obliged to proceed in a similar unpleasing task; but the critic of an historian ought not to omit observing, that the dignity of history is sometimes debased by a trifling jest, and occasionally degraded by impure allusions, which though frequently covered with a Grecian or a Roman veil, are yet so carelessly hid that their indecency glares through the flimsy texture. These faults are numerous and important; yet they are scattered with so little eagerness, (the sneers against Christianity, perhaps, excepted,) they are so little connected with the principal story, that a careful hand might root up the weeds without injury to the crop. If Mr Gibbon wishes to rest his fame on the concurrent testimony both of the wise and good, he will not suffer another edition to go down the stream of time deformed by such glaring improprieties. He will avoid the pain which he must feel when he considers that, in a national work, adorned with all that learning can bestow, enlightened by the brilliancy of a luminous and elegant style, supported by the scientific knowledge of a philosophical era, and the well digested thoughts of a mature age, he has left passages which will corrupt the youthful heart, raise a blush on the cheek of innocence, and contribute to take from each sex and every age the comforts of prosperity, and the only rational and firm support in adversity.

We must next examine the historian's style, which has had

its admirers and its antagonists; a style in a great measure new, brilliant, harmonious, and dignified. We should at first say that his narratives are the dictates of the historic Muse, for the dignity of his style is imposing, its brilliancy fascinating, and its harmony seductive; but, while we admire its general effects, and are led by this fondness to a more particular examination, we shall find, as usual, on a near inspection, that there are inconveniences and deformities. The style is not a natural one: affectation is often seen in its perverted arrangement, and foreign idioms occasionally assume the place of the more natural and nervous phraseology of the English language. With the usual obscurity of Tacitus, Mr. Gibbon has not the collected force of his words, or the precision of his short, but expressive sentences. The difficulty arises from the arrangement, from the periphrasis, with which the harmonious sentence is frequently rounded, and sometimes from the reflections on a fact preceding the account of the fact itself. We have said too, that difficulties seem to have been studied and designed, for we can no otherwise account for their occurring in passages, where an additional word would have rendered the whole clear. We have been averse to crowding our remarks with quotations, but shall give the first instance which occurs to our memory. 'The Jews, he observes, probably some of their different sects, seem to have had an idea of a pre-existent state: a passage from St. John is immediately quoted, by mentioning the chapter and verse only, (John ix. 2.) but this passage relates to the man who was blind from his birth, and restored to sight by Christ. "His disciples asked him, Master, who did sin, *this man* or his parents, that he was *born* blind." The opinion so obscurely expressed by the quotation would have been very obvious, if the verse had been printed with the necessary distinctions. There are many similar instances.

These are the most striking faults that we have discovered on close inspection, for the little grammatical errors, 'quas aut incuria fudit, aut humana parum caveat natura,' are very few, and of little importance. Nouns of multitude are generally used with the verb which they govern in a singular number; and this circumstance gives an incorrect appearance, where, if we adopt the Latin idiom, no incorrectness exists.

There is one kind of error which we have not noticed, the inaccuracy of the quotations, which have filled the empty, trifling pages of some forward critics on his former volumes. We have not been inattentive to the marginal notes; and, though we were unable, and perhaps unwilling, to raise a volume on the superstructure of his own laborious quotations, we have occasionally referred to the original authors, where they were within our reach, or where, from our former studies, we suspected

him to be mistaken. In researches of this kind we have detected some errors, but they are few and unimportant: we have found the force of many passages given with singular conciseness and success. In short, what justice would allow us to say on this head is so inconsiderable, that we think Mr. Gibbon's character should not be severely impeached on the subject; and we would advise those who hunt for faults, to be cautious how they are hurried into accusations by apparent errors. We have found many of this kind, which, by examining the context, the spirit of the author, and other parts of the work, we have discovered to be errors of our own.

We must now leave this vast work, and rest from our labours, with a consciousness of having discriminated the merits and defects of the historian with a steady and impartial hand. He has erected a monument to his fame, which will be probably as durable as the English language; and, if empire, as has been predicted, shall travel westward, he may, after intestine wars, and another period of barbarian darkness, be rescued from oblivion, and received by a very distant age, as another Livy, unexpectedly recovered, and proportionally prized; as an author who could render the dark annals of a rude age interesting, and add a lustre even to the classical elegance of the most refined æra.

A Voyage round the World; but more particularly to the Northwest Coast of America: performed in 1785, 1786, 1787, and 1788, in the King George and Queen Charlotte, Captains Portlock and Dixon. By Captain George Dixon. 4to. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Goulding.

IT was an observation of Montesquieu, combated with little success by Mr. Forster, that countries were now discovered by the medium of the sea, and formerly the sea was discovered by the conquest of countries. Captain Cooke's last voyage was a striking proof of the president's argument, and the lure held out of commercial advantages to be obtained, by establishing a trade between the western coasts of America and China has already attracted numerous adventurers to extend the discoveries of our celebrated navigator. The French, indeed, in their late national expedition, had greater and more important views; but they did not disdain to add to their resources by means of the fur-trade. Independent, however, of this attempt, ships from England, from Bengal, from Ostend, from Macao in China, and other ports of the East, have eagerly engaged in speculations of this kind, a speculation peculiarly adapted to the spirited and enlightened commercial genius of this country. The success has, probably, been inadequate to the expectations entertained; and

we ventured long ago to hint, that it could not be carried on with advantage but from establishments formed on the western coast of America, from whence the furs might be conveyed at a small expence to China. In the account given of the fur-trade in the work before us, the advantages do not seem, from the rude calculation which we can make of the expences, to be nearly adequate to the objects of the undertakers, if we deduct the cargoes of tea carried from China. Furs were soon found to be scarce, though when the American of the western coast finds that they may become of importance, he will be more eager and diligent in his search. Cook's River is the spot from which they were at first procured, but the stock appears now to be exhausted. China was the destined market; but the speculators were not aware of the frauds of the Chinese merchants; the delays of the Chinese governments; the monopoly established by its officers, and the real indifference of the political rulers to every intercourse with Europeans. In other countries, delays and fraud might be prevented by threatening to destroy any farther connection. If this threat be uttered in China, the officer will reply that it is what they wish, for China requires no assistance from Europe.

The voyage of captain Portlock and captain Dixon has added to our knowledge of the country and of the inhabitants. The author, whose name is concealed, but who we suspect to have been supercargo in the *Queen Charlotte*, has adopted the form of letters; and his language, either from familiarity or religious prejudice, is in the second person singular. The form of letters is not, in general, unpleasing, because they seem to convey the effusions of the moment, the vivid impressions which new ideas impart: in the present instance it is artificial, because we know that the letters could not be conveyed, and that most probably they were written only from hints, at a subsequent period. 'Thee and thou' also, constantly recurring, are stiff and ungraceful.

Our voyagers doubled Cape Horn, and proceeded directly to O'whyhee, the spot fatal to captain Cook. The description of different places which they accidentally saw, or at which they touched, affords nothing very new or interesting. They went immediately to Cook's River, as the centre of their market, and continued there till the season and their necessities compelled them to repair to the Sandwich Islands. Early in the spring, 1787, they returned to the coast, and, in their progress to Nootka Sound, the most southern spot which could afford them their desired object, made some discoveries on a coast from which capt. Cook was driven by winds; light variable blasts, which almost constantly repel the navigator from the western side of the

new continent. But we shall first consider the consequences of this voyage in a geographical view, assisted by the very plain and intelligent introduction of capt. Dixon, who seems to have deserved to be the successor of his former companion in the same track, captain Cook.

The very accurate chart, prefixed to this volume, comprehends the western coast of America, from the island Kodiak to Nootka Sound: in other words, that sweep of the coast which from $50\frac{3}{4}^{\circ}$ north latitude, rises in Cook's River to above 61° , and bends round, in what may be considered as a vast bay, whose eastern extremity is the northern cape of Berkeley's Sound, immediately below Nootka, in lat. 49° N. The extent is $32\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of longitude from 128° west longitude to $160^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$.

In our review of capt. Cook's Voyage, (vol. LVIII. p. 87.) we remarked, that the most southern part of the American coast which he saw was Cape Blanco, about $43^{\circ} 10'$ north latitude; and that he was driven from the coast and down to this latitude by the violent winds blowing from the continent. In that outline we could not particularly remark that he repeatedly approached and was driven from the coast; that, in Mr. Roberts' chart, the coast from lat. 40° to Nootka Sound, in lat. $49^{\circ} 36'$, is laid down from a Spanish map; and that from its northern cape to Cross Sound, lat. $58\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, the authority was the same. From our present voyager we find some reason to distrust Maurelle's description, published by Mr. Barrington, though a part of the older Spanish accounts may appear to be well founded. From lat. $54^{\circ} 20''$ to $51^{\circ} 56''$ N. and from 130° to 133° west longitude, some islands were discovered, which very nearly resemble in their situation the Archipelago of St. Lazarus, described by De Fonte. Our voyagers saw different points of these islands, and think that, instead of one large island, there are many small ones. This was so evident, as to render it doubtful whether they had, in any instance, reached the real continent. The greater part of the outline of this group was traced, though, as the whole was not surrounded, the possibility remains that it may in its north-westerly points be joined to the continent. As this Archipelago is now ascertained, we may give a little more credit to the pretended Strait of De Fonte; and when we consider that the parallel of lat. 55° divides nearly the largest of the North Western Lakes (Lake Winipig), and touches the southern extremity of James' Bay, it will be allowed to be the most promising spot for the expected communication, though we own that we entertain no sanguine expectation of its existence, for reasons which we have occasionally hinted at, and which are too long to be again introduced. The prosecution of this undertaking, and of the navigation of Cook's River, are objects of
vast

vast importance to geography and commerce. Either are undoubtedly within the limits of our remaining possessions in North America :— But to return.

From the Kodiak of captain Cooke to Whitsunday Bay, the chart of Mr. Roberts is unchanged; but from hence to Cape Douglas, the discoveries of capt. Mears, another adventurer in the fur-trade, have improved our acquaintance with the coast. It appears that Point Banks is the extremity of an island, as capt. Cook almost conjectured; and that there is a passage between this island, which, in captain Dixon's chart, is called also Kodiak and the continent, while the coast of the latter trends a little to the north-west. From Cape Douglas to Cook's river, and as far to the southward and eastward as $57^{\circ}\frac{3}{4}$, where there is a harbour, which is distinguished by capt. Portlock's name: the coast is laid down from their own survey. It differs in several particulars from capt. Cook's chart; but we can mention only those which are most important. A little to the south and east of Mount Elias, Mr. Roberts, from capt. Cook's Journal, has delineated a bay, on the west of Beering's Bay. Here capt. Dixon discovered a good harbour, with a safe anchorage, sheltered by different islands, which he called Admiralty Bay. In about $57^{\circ} 10'$ captain Cook discovered a cape, which he named Cape Edgumbe; but our present voyagers have found that it is an island, which furnishes shelter on one side to a sound, that they denominated Norfolk Sound; and a little to the south is a port, which they have called Port Banks. This we perceive to be obscurely pointed out in Mr. Roberts' chart; but the coast is afterwards laid down by Mr. Roberts from the Spanish maps; for, from Nootka Sound, capt. Cook was kept at a distance by contrary winds, till he discovered Cape Edgecumbe. Norfolk Harbour, with Port Banks, are laid down from captain Dixon's survey, as well as the coast to the south, as far as Beresford's Isle, nearly in lat. 51° . In this part we perceive the coast is studded with various islands, till we arrive at the great group, which we have already described; the coast, within the islands, has only been surveyed at a distance, where its bold projecting capes force themselves on the sight. From a cape in lat. $51^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$, which is called Cape Cox, there is an inlet, perhaps a harbour, and probably a river, which should be explored; and, at Woody Point, in the neighbourhood of Nootka, the chart joins again with the coast laid down by Mr. Roberts. From Cape Cox to Woody Point, capt. Dixon rests on the authority of capt. Guise and capt. Hanna, his competitors in the fur-trade, who laid it down seemingly from actual observation.

Of the miscellaneous remarks on the inhabitants of different countries and islands many will not be new to our readers. We shall

shall not follow the navigators to the Cape de Verd Islands, or in their pursuit of the Los Majos, La Maso, and St. Maria la Gorta, islands, laid down by the Spaniards from lat. $18^{\circ} 30'$ to 28° N. and from 135° to 149° west longitude, in their charts, as well as in the more correct map of Mr. Roberts; but which capt. Dixon sought for in vain. At the Sandwich Islands few new observations occur: we have improved our intimacy; and our present navigator's conduct has not lessened the respect which they entertained for the name of Englishmen: indeed we suspect that a cordial and unsuspicious friendship is better established. On the coast of America too, at least on the northern parts, our navigators, intent on trade, have not greatly increased our knowledge. It may be remarked, in general, that the little disputes with the natives, either of the Sandwich Islands or the continent, though they may have been attended with fatal effects on their side, have not diminished the confidence of the others. They perhaps saw that their countrymen deserved the fate they met with, and that their predatory disposition, for from that cause the quarrel generally proceeded, was properly punished. Their circumspection, and seemingly their respect, have commonly increased after these little broils. We shall join our navigators at their first untried country, Admiralty Bay, and shall select some account of the people, and of a very singular ornament.

‘ The number of inhabitants contained in the whole sound, as near as I could calculate, amounted to about seventy, including women and children; they in general are about the middle size, their limbs straight and well shaped, but, like the rest of the inhabitants we have seen on the coast, are particularly fond of painting their faces with a variety of colours, so that it is no easy matter to discover their real complexion; however, we prevailed on one woman, by persuasion, and a trifling present, to wash her face and hands, and the alteration it made in her appearance absolutely surprised us; her countenance had all the cheerful glow of an English milk-maid; and the healthy red which flushed her cheek, was even beautifully contrasted with the whiteness of her neck; her eyes were black and sparkling; her eye-brows the same colour, and most beautifully arched; her forehead so remarkably clear, that the translucent veins were seen meandering even in their minutest branches—in short, she was what would be reckoned handsome even in England: but this symmetry of features is entirely destroyed by a custom extremely singular, and what we had never met with before, neither do I recollect having seen it mentioned by any voyagers whatever.

‘ An aperture is made in the thick part of the under lip, and increased by degrees in a line parallel with the mouth, and equally long: in this aperture, a piece of wood is constantly wore,
of

of an elliptical form, about half an inch thick; the superficies not flat, but hollowed out on each side like a spoon, though not quite so deep; the edges are likewise hollowed in the form of a pulley, in order to fix this precious ornament more firmly in the lip, which by this means is frequently extended at least three inches horizontally, and consequently distorts every feature in the lower part of the face. This curious piece of wood is wore only by the women, and seems to be considered as a mark of distinction, it not being wore by all indiscriminately, but only those who appeared in a superior station to the rest.'

It is remarkable that they chew a plant, 'which appears to be a species of tobacco, and that they generally mix lime along with it.' We might make some remarks on this custom, and the similarity of the Indian custom of chewing betel with lime, if our author had told us how the lime was procured.

We have formerly remarked, when we were enquiring into the source of the population of America, that the northern parts were evidently peopled from Europe, and that, at Nootka Sound, was first found the united race of two different kinds of people. This observation must, we find, be limited, for the inhabitants of the western coasts of America seem occasionally to migrate; and, in Norfolk Sound, the inhabitants resemble more those of the banks of Cook's River, than of Port Mulgrave. But whether the point of union be at Nootka Sound, or any other part of the coast, the substance of the observation is established by this subsequent voyage. The religion of these savage tribes cannot be easily understood; and our author's suggestion, from an American pointing to the sun, that he considered it as the source of our existence, and the means of our support, must be still equivocal. They are in many respects ferocious; and it is the opinion of the navigators that they are still cannibals, and, occasionally at least, eat human flesh. We were formerly of the same opinion, from the concurring testimony of the facts recorded in captain Cook's last voyage. In Queen Charlotte's Islands, the people were more mild and seemingly more humane, but our author's suspicions were kept alive, and he concludes, perhaps with reason, that if they had been decoyed on shore, they would have been murdered. The following description of a chief of these cannibals is sketched in a striking manner, and perhaps under the influence of no little apprehension.

'Of all the Indians we had seen, this chief had the most savage aspect, and his whole appearance sufficiently marked him as a proper person to lead a tribe of cannibals. His stature was above the common size; his body spare and thin, and though at first sight he appeared lank and emaciated, yet his step was bold and firm, and his limbs apparently strong and muscular; his eyes were large and gogling, and seemed ready to start out
of

of their sockets; his forehead deeply wrinkled, not merely by age, but from a continual frown; all this, joined to a long visage, hollow cheeks, high elevated cheek-bones, and a natural ferocity of temper, formed a countenance not easily beheld without some degree of emotion: however, he proved very useful in conducting our traffic with his people, and the intelligence he gave us, and the methods he took to make himself understood, shewed him to possess a strong natural capacity.

The following description of a different kind is no less entertaining; but our author's interpretation of the cause of the emotion is not without some suspicion of error.

'The woman, after giving her infant a maternal kiss, came over the side without the least hesitation, and when she got on the quarter-deck gave us to understand that she was only come to see the vessel, and with a modest diffidence in her looks endeavoured to bespeak our indulgence and permission for that purpose. She was neatly dressed after the r fashion; her under garment, which was made of fine tanned leather, sat close to her body, and reached from her neck to the calf of her leg: her cloak or upper garment was rather coarser, and sat loose like a petticoat, and tied with leather strings. Having taken notice of every thing which seemed to attract her attention, capt. Dixon made her a present of a string of beads for an ornament to each ear, and a number of buttons, with which she was highly pleased, and made her acknowledgments in the best manner she was able. She was scarcely got into the canoe before a number of women flocked about her, and seeing the beads in her ears began to talk very earnestly, most probably to tax her with incontinency, for she immediately clasped her infant to her breast with unspeakable fondness, burst into a flood of tears, and it was a considerable time before the soothing of her husband and the apologies of her friends could bring back her former cheerfulness and tranquillity.'

The inhabitants of this coast are, in general, about the middle size, almost universally lean, with very high cheek-bones, small eyes, and long black hair. Their language is laboured and guttural, though not from any defect in their vocal organs, for they could easily pronounce the words in our language, while the English could not imitate their pronunciation, which occasioned some ridicule, and no little triumph. In Cook's River, they could even pronounce our *th*, the Shibboleth of every European, not of our own country. In the Sandwich Islands, where the inhabitants pronounce more articulately than the Otaheitans, they called captain Portlock Po-pote. Our author suspects, from the numerous representations of birds, beasts, human heads, &c. that they may have some means of recording events, similar to hieroglyphics. It is remarkable, that their only gambling im-
plements

plements were *fifty-two* round bits of wood : was the coincidence of number with our fifty-two cards accidental only ?

Though we purposed not to return with our voyagers to the Sandwich Islands, yet we have some pleasure in remarking, that the inhabitants seem to be humane and benevolent, steady in their attachments, and anxious to preserve esteem. From one or two incidental observations, we suspect that the drinking of *ava* is not wholly the cause of their leprosy, but that it is occasioned in part by their other diet, though their favourite drink hastens its appearance. Their intrepidity we have experienced ; but that they will swim in sight of a shark without any weapon, surpasses almost our belief : yet a dextrous swimmer may escape from this devouring animal, if he is seen, since he must turn on his back to catch his prey. But if this be the method, our author should have informed us of it.

We can follow our navigators no farther, for what they have told us of China, and the proceedings of the Chinese, is nearly what every commercial navigator has experienced. They returned in safety, after losing two men only by disease, though the scurvy at times, notwithstanding the plentiful supply and liberal allowance of the best antiscorbutics, prevailed in a great degree.

The Appendix contains the observations on natural history, and the journals of the voyage. The animals described and delineated are few, viz. the cancer raninus, two plates, Lin. Syst. Natur. 1039; and the turbo apex fulva, a new species, were brought from Sandwich Islands : the solen patulus, a very large esculent species, from Cook's River. The birds are the yellow-tufted bee-eater, (Latham, vol. ii. p. 683), from Sandwich Islands; the winged cross-bill, (Latham, vol. iii. p. 108.) from the north-west coast of America; the Patagonian warbler, (Lath. vol. iv. p. 434.) from Falkland's Islands; and the lanius jocosus, the jocose shrike, (Lin. Syst. Nat. p. 138. Lath. p. 176.) from China. These are engraved with great accuracy and neatness; but the plates in general, though seemingly accurate, because they are characteristic, are far from being elegant or beautiful. The general chart, and the charts of particular harbours, are probably exact.

The second number of the Appendix, which contains the journals, affords a few facts relating to the heat of different places, that we wish to preserve. The mean height of the thermometer, at Falkland's Islands, in the middle of January, for several days, was 54° . — This month answers to July in our hemisphere. In May and June, the height of the thermometer at Sandwich Islands, from 19 degrees of north latitude to 21 degrees, was from 74° to 80° . — The medium about $77\frac{1}{2}$ nearly,
equal

equal to our warmest summer heat. The mean height of the thermometer, in Cook's River, in lat. $58^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$, in the month of July, was equal to $58^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$. In the year 1786, the mean height of the thermometer, from November 30 to March 15th 1787, at Sandwich Islands was 75° . At Port Mulgrave, the mean for several days, in the beginning of June, was only 46° —lat. $59^{\circ}22'$ —The mean of several days, in Norfolk Sound, lat. 57° was only 48 . In lat. 52° , in July, in the route along the coast, the heat seldom exceeded 54° .

We must now leave our voyagers and their work. Their conduct, in general, seems to have deserved our praise, and the relation we have read with great pleasure, lessened only by the little circumstances stated in the beginning of the article. After having said so much on this volume, we can only add, that they have opened to us new sources of information, which we hope that the genius of commerce and of science will contribute to explore more completely.

Twenty-Eight Miscellaneous Sermons. By a Clergyman of the Church of England. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Murray.

IT is not easy to come before the tribunal of the public with less form and with less ostentation than our author. 'Me voici mes enfans :' here I am with my twenty-eight Sermons, read them or not, as you please; I neither sooth you with compliments, or threaten you with the danger of differing from men of genius, of taste, of erudition, or of rank, if you happen to dislike them. Does the author say all this? Not a word; but his silence says more, for we have long ago heard of the 'eloquent silence' of Ajax, Dido, and a host of imitators. In reality, not one word of preface, of advertisement, the shorter and more modern kind of proemium; not even a table of contents, so useful to a Reviewer, who is unwilling to read the work which he criticises, is prefixed. Do not you expect, sir, that our severity will be doubly keen for this abrupt entrance, for this bold disregard of modern and useful forms? The culprit stands trembling; and we must dismiss this raillery for more serious remark.

We have read these Sermons; for, as we have already observed, there is no shorter way of arriving at their contents, if we had wished to have employed it, with great pleasure. The Sermons are in the modern style, somewhat resembling essays, without any formal division of the subject: but they are not like modern essays; for though short they are ingenious, and though popular they are neither trite nor flimsy. The style is clear, neat, and pure: the words well chosen and well arranged, even when the author is on the ground most dangerous for general unap-propriated

propriated language, exclamation and ejaculation. As the Sermons are truly miscellaneous, we shall point out those with which we have been more than usually pleased, or in which the author seems a little mistaken, and add two or three extracts.

The IId Sermon, on Candid Judgment, from St. John viii. 24, is, we think, an excellent one for a popular congregation, as it points out, with great propriety and force, the danger of judging, without a particular acquaintance with the motives and circumstances of the actor.

The IVth Sermon, 'Let your Speech be always with Grace,' is an admirable lesson for the conduct of conversation. We shall try to detach a part of it, which will bear the separation without violence, and without injury.

'The second fault that hurts conversation is self-confidence. What is less supportable than a man, who, taking himself for a genius of the first rank, puts forth his own infallibility as the test of every truth; who would have all his words pass for oracles, and his judgment be the last resort, from which there lies no appeal? What aggravates the injustice of this character is, that those decisive people are commonly most ignorant: their ignorance, indeed, is the cause of their conceit and precipitation. An ignorant person, who never perhaps sounded the full depth of any question; who knows neither the strength of proofs, nor the force of difficulties; who sees things only superficially: such a one will imagine, with great facility, that he has clear ideas of all, and perfect knowledge of what he thinks the circle of the sciences. He knows nothing of doubt or hesitation; to doubt is pitiful and mean. A man of sound understanding, on the contrary, knows so well the weakness of the human mind, and knows so well by experience his own failings, that those reflections are always a sufficient counterpoise to pride. He proposeth his thoughts only as problems to be examined, not as decisions to be followed; and this is what I have called the grace of humility in conversation. We must submit our opinions to the discussion of those to whom we propose them. We must leave to every one the liberty of thinking as he sees good: remembering, that if we have reason, others have it also; if we have knowledge, others have it in like manner; if we have considered any matter, others may have considered it as well as we. We must even propose the things that we are most strongly convinced of, in such a manner as to shew, that we only speak from a conviction of truth, and not from self-conceit: thus putting in practice that lesson of the Apostle, "Let nothing be done through strife or vain glory; but in lowliness of mind let each esteem other better than themselves."

The principle which pervades the fifth Sermon is more entitled to our applause than the conduct of the argument, which, though not faulty, is not excellent. The Sermon is on the Omnipresence

sence of God; and the preacher's object is, to demonstrate the different attributes of God from his works rather than from abstract reasoning.

The VIth Sermon is on the Judgments of God; but we think our author, in pursuit of his argument, viz. that 'they on whom the tower of Siloam fell, were not sinners above all the Galileans,' degrades human nature too low, and exaggerates human depravity. The VIIIth and IXth Sermons on the Danger of Indifference in Religion, and on the Necessity of connecting good Works with Faith, are in many respects very good.

The character of Saul, which is well discriminated in the subsequent discourse, has not been very generally understood. The preacher distinguishes the different traits with precision, points out his ability, his intrepidity, and fortitude, with propriety; and above all, notices his inconsistency, perhaps inseparable from his genius; more probably connected with morbid melancholy, or gloomy madness.

Thus fell king Saul—a man raised from an humble, and probably a happy state, to all the splendors and the troubles of royalty, to waste many days of toil, and nights of anxiety—and then to die, with the flower of his family, in a disastrous battle:—was he worthy of a fate so hard? Such events, indeed, are common in the history of every nation. Many a noble patriot, and many an excellent prince, with virtues more deserving, have had deaths less glorious: yet still, in the case of Saul, there was something particular. Some reason of more than common weight there must have been, to cause the man designed for the founder of the Jewish monarchy to be peremptorily rejected by the same power and authority from which he received his crown: nor is this reason difficult to be found. The character of Saul had one capital blemish, which I have not yet noticed—an overweening confidence in his own abilities, and a disregard to the religion of his country. To this spring may be traced those actions of his which are most severely blamed: his intrusion into the priest's office; his sparing the king of Amalek; his extermination of the priests at Nob; his persecution of the Gibeonites; and his disrespect to the prophet Samuel. In fact, he seems to have paid no attention to the rites of national worship, but when he thought they might serve some political purpose; regarding religion, perhaps, as little more than an engine of state. By such conduct he plainly unfitted himself for the government to which he was appointed. In any nation, a king without religion is a most dangerous character; but in a nation which, till then, had been governed immediately by God himself, a king without religion was a very monster. The first and chief of the regal duties there, must have been a strict attention to all the prescribed rites of divine worship, and a most minute regard to those oraculous communications which the Almighty then deigned

deigned to give his favourite people. Accordingly, we may observe the sacred historians give us for the leading feature in the character of every prince—"he did that which was right in the sight of the Lord:" or, "he did that which was evil in the sight of the Lord." The latter was applied to Saul—"Now thy kingdom shall not continue: the Lord hath fought him a man after his own heart, and the Lord hath commanded him to be captain over his people, because thou hast not kept that which the Lord commanded thee."

The advantages of truth, and the distinction between immutable truth, and what may appear such to a hasty and an inaccurate or a prejudiced enquirer, is properly explained in the XIIth Sermon; and the XIIIth, on the happy consequences of a mixture of vice and virtue, of good and bad men in the world, is a very ingenious one. Vice is amended by the examples and reproofs of virtue, and virtue in its turn is animated, supported, encouraged by a prospect of the miseries and misfortunes entailed by vice.

The XIVth Sermon is an improvement of Arrian's Discourses on Epictetus. He taught us that the wretched alone are slaves: our author adds, that the Christian religion alone can give true freedom to man.

The XVth Sermon, What shall a man give in exchange for his Soul? comprehends some remarks perhaps of more ingenuity than solidity. That the soul is the principle in which we feel, may be allowed; but that it is capable of feeling pleasure or pain abstractedly from the body, has been doubted. Yet, on this ground our preacher allures to virtue, and draws the sinner from vice. That the soul is adapted to a future and more perfect state, is clear from reason as well as revelation; but it would be by no means certain that it is combined with substances unsuitable to it in the present world, unless we knew something more accurately of its nature and essence.

The XVIIIth Sermon, on Flattery, and exaggerated commendations both on the living and the dead, we read with pleasure. This fondness for praise is very properly contrasted with the meekness, the modesty, and the humility of Christ.

The XIXth Sermon is a very peculiar one in one of its traits. 'Fear not them who can kill the body,' &c. The preacher dwells much on the interpretation of the word 'Fear,' as applied to a being whose power is infinite, to whom the soul as well as the body is subjected. Our ideas of power, he observes, are capable of being greatly extended; and of whatever a romantic imagination may for a moment believe in the tales of enchantment, God is the original; for, in him, all that is marvellous and great is comprehended. This idea seems to us rather brilliant than solid;

for what we believe of enchantments arises from a principle deeply implanted in our minds, viz. credulity. For a time this principle assists us in the belief of God, of his manifold power and infinitely extended influence; but it also assists us in trusting to the tales of superstition, the fictions of a disordered imagination. When this principle is brought under the dominion of reason, all those mists are dissipated, and the more plain and more rational idea of the being and attributes of a God remain, independent of the superadded fancies of the marvellous kind.

The XXth and XXIst Sermons are on Christmas Day and Good Friday. The XXII^d Sermon, 'We know in part,' is designed to point out the impossibility of our judging of the conduct of God, in our narrow sphere, and with our limited attainments. The inference drawn from this doctrine is, that mysteries in religion are unavoidable; and that our church should not be opposed because all its tenets are not level with reason, or to be comprehended in our finite views.

The XXIVth Sermon is from St. Matthew xii. 50. 'Whoever shall do the will of my Father which is in heaven, the same is my brother, and sister, and mother.' In this Discourse our author points out the social union of the virtuous and the pious, explains what is expected from this holy brotherhood, and exhorts in strong and appropriated language his readers, perhaps his hearers, to become members of this happy family.

The XXVIth Sermon is a very good one on the danger of slight and apparently venial offences: the last, on the shortness of time and the necessity of employing it properly, is ingenious and practical.

We need not repeat what we have already said in commendation of these Discourses. They are seldom laboured disquisitions, and we do not meet with long connected trains of reasoning. But they are well adapted for the closet, the pulpit, and the family: in each place they may be read with pleasure and advantage.

The Revelations translated, and explained throughout, with Keys, Illustrations, Notes, and Comments; a copious Introduction, Argument, and Conclusion. By W. Cooke, Greek Professor in the University of Cambridge, and Rector of Hempstead, Norfolk. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Robinsons.

ON a mystical book, the commentary must be in part mystical. This must be our apology if we should misinterpret, for it is not always easy to understand our author: where his illustration appears trifling or absurd, we mistrust ourselves rather than the professor; but as we have examined his work attentive-

y, we shall endeavour to give the outline of his system from the Introduction.

We need not enlarge on Mr. Cooke's apology for publishing, since, if he thought that he could elucidate a doubtful work, it was his duty not to conceal his talent in a napkin: yet, if it was designed to produce an equivalent return of profit to himself or advantage to his readers, he ought to have attended a little more to the perspicuity of his style. His work, as we have said, breathes the air of mystery, but he has added to the difficulty, by a language generally vague, and sometimes incorrect. The Revelations are said to present a proof of the Christian faith, which is 'still nascent and germinant.'—From the sixth page we learn that nothing but what is great and grand can engage mankind, though high gaming is said, within a few lines, to be capable of fixing the mind. Is gaming a great or grand employment? In page xx, there are said to be two grand distinctions of men, 'Epicureism, and penitence.' We may allow that the greater part of mankind is divided between pleasure and repentance; but we are startled when we are told that there can be no more than these two distinctions, for we suspected that men might lead a life of prudence and virtue, distinct from criminal pleasures and causes of repentance: must we suppose they repent of sins that they have not committed? But enough of this quibbling criticism, though our author's inaccuracies give us much room for remarks of a similar kind.

After Mr. Cooke has endeavoured to support St. John's claim to this work, and opposed Mr. Lightfoot's and Mr. Mede's doctrines, though he professes the profoundest respect for Mr. Mede's extensive learning and ingenuity, he proceeds to his system. Every fact and doctrine is, from the authority of Christ himself, to be established on the words of two or three witnesses: therefore the thousand years and the 1260 days or years, are represented in these different ways; but both are indefinite, and mean only the uncertain duration (uncertain at least to us) of the Christian dispensation. We might suppose, that, if neither mean any thing finite, no more strong impressions can remain from two indefinites, or from two hundred than from one. Yet it is a little remarkable, in the history of the discovery, to find it expressly said, that the three days (or years) and a half, comprehending the fall of the witnesses, suggested the 1260 days (in reality 1277) and that these three years and a half was the period of Christ's ministry, though this fact is far from being indisputably settled. Again, in order to connect this system with the prophecy of the 70 weeks in Daniel, he considers seven weeks as equivalent to Christ's ministry. But it continued, from his own confession, half as many years. If we allow then the

weeks in this instance to be years, as the days were in the former passage, it will still require ingenuity to bring 7 to $3\frac{1}{2}$. Our author does it dexterously, but not completely. As our Saviour lay in the earth, says he, but one day and a half, though he is said to have lain three days, so the three and a half years are equivalent, on the same grounds, to the seven. But our Saviour is said to have risen on the *third* day, and this was strictly true; for the Friday was the first, and the Sunday, of course, the third; this calculation, put on its true grounds, will not support our author's system. Again: the last seven years of Christ's life, multiplied by the week, or seven years of his ministry, make forty-nine years: this, in our author's opinion, supports the speech of the Pharisees to our Saviour—'thou art not yet fifty years old'—making that a mystery, which means only, thou art not yet arrived to the maturity of wisdom. After such reasoning of this vague (may we add, trifling and insignificant?) sort, our author finds that the 1000 years and the 1260 days mean the same: that is, as we have said, neither mean any thing definite.

'There will be found also,' adds our author, speaking of the contents of his work, 'a new and true explication of some particular Trumpets, and most of the Seals, and the Spiritual scope of that whole Vision declared.—There will be found the Chronological plan and deduction of the Visions, now first proved and stated out of the Visions themselves, and derived from the first to this present age and time.—There will be found also, a just and right interpretation of the characteristic number of the Antichristian Beast, and many new notes and uncommon observations on the nature and fates of the Antichrist himself.—I here will be found too, a sound and sure decision on the intention and issue of the seven Vials.—They will be all shewn to be past, and to have had their destinies completed and ended with the Reformation: and it will be made evident to the judgment of every reasonable creature, that all the prophecies in this book are accomplished, and that there is nothing to be looked for and expected by the world, but the last grand *Euphoria* and Epiphany of Christ, and the event of those predictions consequent to it.'

We might be led more accurately to examine the translation and the notes; but the former we are warned not to criticise; and though our author hints at illumination, or the peculiar grace of God influencing his opinion, and enlightening his mind, we own, that we are so little satisfied with his system, that we are unwilling to enlarge farther on it. If our readers differ from us, we would recommend the work itself to their notice, where they will find mysticism enough for the most scrupulous Behmenist, and uncertainty enough to please the most doubting sceptic.

Medical Commentaries for the Year 1788. By Andrew Duncan, M. D. Decade II. Vol. III. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Elliot and Kay.

AS we have found that many are offended at the short accounts which we have hitherto offered of these volumes, while a great part of each consists of original communications, we shall endeavour to supply the defect. But we fear the cause of offence may be increased, since we are called on to decide on communications which, as voluntary ones, the editor has perhaps treated with tenderness, and probably distinguished with partiality; but, when seated in the critical chair, we must 'speak of them as they are.'

Dr. Duncan remarks, in his preface, that 'some ingenious friends' have thought the analysis of books occupied too great a share of the volume. We have lately wished him to pay more attention to their choice; but we think that, unless his original communications were more important, that they do not occupy a sufficient space. From our having ran the same course, we know that there are flowers of more value to be collected; and we have been convinced, 'with honest anguish,' that he has sometimes preferred the weeds. For Dr. Duncan's judgment we have the highest respect; but we suspect that he has often different motives for his choice, besides the real excellence of the works which he has analysed.

The first work mentioned is Dr. Bondt's Dissertation on the *Geoffræa Jurinamenfis*, the South American species of a tree that grows in Jamaica, and, like it, is an excellent anthelmintic. We have had this work before us some time, and intended to have given an account of it; but, on a careful examination of the effects of the *G. Jamaicensis*, we did not find them superior to those of the helleboraster. The *G. Surinamenfis* does not greatly differ: it is only milder. Some of the best observations, from the Memoirs of the London Medical Society, are next extracted; and we find commendations scattered, not always with justice, particularly when Dr. Lettsom's plate of the *quassia amara* is styled 'elegant and accurate,' though the younger Linnæus confessed that his father, from whose works the plate was taken, had described and delineated a very different plant instead of it. Dr. Hunter's Observations on the Diseases of the Army in Jamaica; Dr. Stark's Works; Mr. Home's Dissertation on Pus; Dr. Monro's Description of the *Bursæ Mucosæ*; the New Pharmacopeia; Mr. Bell's Surgery; Dr. Withering's new Edition of the Botanical Arrangements; Baron Wentzel's Treatise on the Cataract; and Dr. Marcard's Description of Pymont, are all that are thought worthy of analysis, in the course of the year 1788.

Among the Medical Occurrences we find, first, some cases, by Mr. Helfham, at Stoke in Norfolk, but they are very trifling. The only facts which most remotely deserve notice, are some herpetic eruptions, with convulsive motions, attending inoculated small-pox.

Mr. Henderson, in the second Essay, gives a case to illustrate a new method of curing ulcers in the legs, by tonics and antiscorbutics, with the cold bath, some applications, pressure, and above all, exercise. The plan is not new, for we have often used it; but the author seems not to be aware of the extent of its application. Mr. Lawson's two dissections of a sudden and general dropsy, or of an abscess, forming in the pelvis from the head of the thigh-bone forcing through its socket from an accident at the age of four years, are of no great importance. Dr. Garnett's account of a suppuration of the liver, terminating successfully after discharging its contents into the bowels, is uncommon, but not singular. The case is well related; but we suspect, the purulent matter burst into the hepatic ducts, for an erosion through the intestines seldom heals completely. The next is a very uncommon case of the œsophagus bursting in the action of vomiting, and the stomach throwing its contents through the wound into the thorax, while the air escaped, probably through the sides of the wound, into the adjacent cellular texture. The facts were ascertained by dissection.

Mr. Rait's observations on the putrid remittent fever, endemic on the coast of Guinea, have been already made by every writer on similar diseases. From a case which he adds, he supposes that a child may be infected with the small-pox in utero, for the eruptions appeared three days after its birth. But there are some doubts whether the mother had the small-pox at the time of delivery, and more, that the eruptions first discovered were the future pustules in their origin. The case is related so ambiguously, that nothing can be concluded from it.

A case of scurvy occurring on shore, and terminating successfully, the author allows is not singular, and that the treatment is 'nothing beyond what the common course of practice is capable of suggesting.' Mr. Clark's history of an aneurism of the crural artery, is so very uncommon, that if we had not known him well, and if different names had not been mentioned, we should have had doubts of the truth of the facts: at present, not a shadow of suspicion remains. The aneurism increased to a great degree, and a gangrene came on externally. The slough separated; coagulated blood came out, not only without the humour breaking, but with a cessation of the palpitation. It was found on dissection, that a thrombus had formed in the iliac above, and in the crural artery below, and that the aneurism

was

was actually at last out of the course of the circulation: the thigh and leg shrunk, but a slight imperfect circulation was kept up by anastomosing arteries. On carefully reviewing the case, we perceive that the distention gave violent and excruciating pain, which 200 drops of laudanum would not mitigate. A scruple of extract of cicuta was then given at once; and by this decisive remedy, which we should have apprehended would have been decisive in a different way, delirium was brought on, the pain ceased, and the gangrene began to appear. We have no doubt but in this moment, when the circulation was thus powerfully arrested, the coagulation took place, and the humour became at once an extraneous body. From its irritation it produced inflammations and sinusses in the neighbourhood, but the death was owing to inflammation and purulent effusion in the lungs. If Mr. Clark could have suspected the cause of the cessation of the pulsation, had drawn blood largely, and employed other evacuations, he might perhaps have saved his patient, for the event seems to have been owing to a cold, heightened and rendered fatal by this sudden and unusual plethora, or, if our readers please, metastasis. But it can be no reflection on Mr. Clark not to have guarded against what perhaps never happened, or at least was known to happen before.

Dr. Farquarson gives some old stories, aniles fabellæ, though in some degree supported by tradition, of a child escaping thro' a rupture of the uterus and integuments; what is more, of the woman's recovery—*Credat Judæus!*

Dr. Gahagan's curious case of a translation of inflammation from the lungs to the brain, ending fatally in hydrocephalus, is very indistinctly related so far as regards the practice. It cannot, however, be called a translation, for which term the author has apologised, from the symptoms, because those which indicated an affection of the lungs were apparently gone before the delirium came on, in consequence of a second cold; or, from the dissection, since a small part of the lungs was still found in an inflamed state. The termination could not be called hydrocephalus, as it was the common one of inflammation by the effusion of bloody serum between the dura and pia mater. The case, deprived of its singular appearance in the title, deserves very little attention.

The last communication is of two cases of amputation, in which the compression was made by the finger of an assistant, as there was no room for applying the tourniquet; and these cases show how serviceable the compression of a steady assistant is, in emergencies, or when the amputation is too near the joint to admit of the application of the proper compress.

For the Medical News we must refer to the volume, though

we hope to give some of its substance in a future Number, particularly Dr. Pearson's account of the preparation of the soda phosphorata, which we have some time since seen in the *Journal de Physique*; and should not have delayed, if we had not hoped to have added some observations on its effects. We may mention, however, the Life of the late Dr. Hope, which is, we think, written with great delicacy and judgment by Dr. Duncan.

Philotoxi Ardenæ; the Woodmen of Arden; a Latin Poem: by John Morfitt, Esq. Barrister at Law. With a Translation in Blank Verse; another in Rhyme; attempted in the Manner of Dryden, and dedicated (by Permission) to the Right Honourable the Countess of Aylesford: And an Essay on the Superiority of Dryden's Versification over that of Pope and of the Moderns. By Joseph Weston, 4to. 2s. 6d. Robinsons.

FULMINET in Verrem Cicero sine more Britannus,
Et vehemens inflet Foxius, Ore boans.
Hic secura quies, quæ me mihi multa dolentem
Reddidit; ægro animo sola medela quies.
Nescio quid leviter meditantî condere soles
Hic licet, et Flacci fallere more diem.

• Let British Cicero thunder against Verres,
All decency disdaining; and let Fox,
Vehement Fox, prefs after, bellowing loud!
Here quiet reigns; who me, long lost in grief,
Has to myself restor'd: here reigns secure.
Quiet! sole medicine to a mind diseas'd!
Here 'tis allow'd me, wrapt in meditation,
(On what I know not) to deceive the day,
And bury suns, as Flaccus did before me.

This specimen will convince the unlearned reader that the poem does not appear to great advantage in blank verse; which mode of translation, we presume, was adopted to convey an exact, and the other a spirited representation of the original: one to be after the manner of Trapp, as the other, we are told, was to imitate that of Dryden. The resemblance in the first instance is certainly more striking than in the second.

• Let Britain's greater Cicero still proclaim,
With voice of thunder, and with words of flame,
That Verres reeks with plunder'd Asia's gore—
And furious Fox re-bellow to the roar!
• Here lost tranquillity, long lost, I find;
Potent—when countless griefs convuls'd my mind—
My thoughts, like oil on swelling waves, to calm;
Tranquillity! the soul's celestial balm!

'Tis

'Tis mine to do what Horace self has done—
Beguile the day, and trifling down the sun,
Sink, with his setting beam in lov'd repose.'

These are the translations, gentle reader, and we can assure thee we have been no way partial in our selection, 'whose spirit, Mr. Morfitt hopes, will atone for the languor of the original.' 'To promote the truly British exercise of archery' is the avowed design of this poem; and should it succeed, he professes that his 'most sanguine expectations will be answered.' A list of the Philotoxites, so Mr. Weston translates Philotoxi, is introduced; in which, among other curious circumstances, we meet with a most extraordinary concentration of four gentlemen, the sons, as a note informs us, of William Dilke, esq. of Maxstock Castle; and another phenomenon, no less wonderful: the rev. Mr. William Bree, of Colehill *wielding* the shafts of Phœbus, *auricomî lucida tela dei*, which we should have supposed, as used by classic writers, to have signified the rays of the sun. We should likewise have rendered Digbæus comes, Digby, an earl, not 'Digby, a comrade, &c.

'Et jam lunavit *quadruplex Dilkius* arcum;
Qualis in aspectu purpura! quale Decus!
Bræus adit, Mufas et amans et amatus ab illis,
Tractat et auricomî lucida tela dei.'

'And now the *fourfold Dilke* has bent his bow
In Luna's waning form; what purple bloom
Flushes his countenance! What youthful grace!
Bree, too, is there, the lover of the nine;
By all the nine belov'd: and wields the arms
Resplendent of the god with locks of gold!'

But enough of poetry. Let us turn to the '*judicious criticism* contained in the *manly* essay that accompanies it.' In which Mr. Morfitt's friend and translator testifies due gratitude to him for his compliment, by expressing a very high opinion of 'the beautiful original.' He looks upon Johnson and Pope, and so far we agree with him, in a very different light. He styles the former, 'a slavish imitator of Pope,' and for the following curious reason, because 'in his collected poems he has used but three triplets, and a solitary instance of the sense overflowing the couplet, to terminate in the beginning of the third line.' He likewise charges him with 'having wrote the weakest paragraph that was *ever* penned;' namely, that an Alexandrine invariably required a break at the sixth syllable. We are informed likewise, that 'a revolution was produced in the Parnassian realms by means utterly contemptible, namely, the *fatal advice* of Walsli. In evil hour, says Mr. Weston, did the ambitious young bard hearken to it. A paucity of triplets and Alexandrines

Alexandrines ensued, *hæc sente derivata rhades*:— and to the officious interposition of this same Walth we are indebted for the contamination of the Heliconian fountain for near a century!—*Risum teneatis?*— To answer which question honestly, we must declare, that it was no easy matter to keep our countenance on the perusal of it. But this is styled *judicious criticism*, and the performance is entered at Stationers Hall!

Observations sur les Ecrits de M. de Voltaire, principalement sur la Religion, en forme de Notes. Par M. E. Gibert, Ministre de la Chapelle Royale de St. James. 2 Tom. Londres. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Hookham.

IT is the design of M. Gibert to continue these criticisms on Voltaire's misrepresentations of the sacred writings, and his sneers at Christianity, in some other volumes, which he purposes to publish by subscription at three shillings each. He supposes that the whole will form six or eight volumes; but, as the subjects will be completed in each volume, he observes, that the reader may discontinue if he no longer approves of them.

In these two volumes, our author's chief object is the *Mélanges de Literature*; and they contain criticisms on different passages of that miscellaneous collection: the words of Voltaire are generally transcribed impartially; and M. Gibert either replies to the author in his own words, or collects the sentiments of the ablest divines and most intelligent philosophers. He seems to prefer speaking in the words of others rather than from himself. It is not possible to follow M. Gibert closely, or to appreciate the value of every answer. In some respects he seems to have acted a little unfairly, and in some injudiciously, though the greater number of the observations are correct and proper. It is unfair, we think, to object to M. de Voltaire, as an error, what was not known at the time of his writing: this is the case with many of the allusions to natural history. It is equally unjust, to examine with rigour what is thrown out in a work of pleasantry as a *jeu d'esprit*, and is not connected either with morality or religion. Voltaire, for instance, makes a Chinese say, that the authors of the Universal History will not give, he suspects, a proper account of the war which happened 22552 years before; and that they will be greatly mistaken in the particulars of that solemn embassy which the Mogul sent, requesting the assistance of the Chinese in forming a code of laws, about five hundred thousand trillions of years before. This evident sarcasm on the pretended antiquity of that boasting nation has called out M. Gibert's erudition, to prove that their pretensions are not well founded. We have read his remarks with pleasure;

but

but we must take the liberty of observing, that Voltaire does not deserve, in this instance, and some similar ones, any very severe reprehension. It is injudicious too, we think, to disseminate ridicule, to which, from its nature, it is not easy to make an adequate reply; for the reader, who is dissatisfied with the answer of a professed antagonist of credit, will be apt to suspect that no reply can be given. The metaphysical part in the second volume is, we think, by much the best.

As we have professed our inability to point out the particular objects of M. Gibert's censure, we shall select one instance as a specimen; and it shall be the first that we can find, where our author speaks from himself, not too extensive for our limits, and connected with religion.

‘§ 14. The idea that M. de Voltaire gives of Providence.’

“Can men, who profess speaking truth, imagine, that God takes the side of an inconsiderable nation, which is fighting against another, equally inconsiderable, in a remote corner of our hemisphere.”

‘M. de Voltaire's Deity is not a God which interferes in particular events: it is of little consequence to him, whether a man is happy or miserable. Even the condition of many millions, or of a little state, is indifferent to him; like a great monarch, who reigns over a powerful kingdom, and cares little about the emmets that inhabit the earth: let these emmets fight for a grain of corn, or let all the rest perish: it is of no importance.’

‘This is not the God revealed to us in the Gospel, without whose permission not a sparrow falls to the ground. Which then shall be my choice? Shall I love a God who disdains to look at me, or one who condescends to take me for the object of his cares; who loves me, notwithstanding my insignificance, and comparative nothingness; who (to employ the figurative, but energetic language of Scripture) has counted the number of the hairs of my head, as well as of the immense globes scattered in the firmament; who sees my misfortunes with compassion; and who (to use again the words of Scripture) puts my tears into his vessels, and is attentive to the sighs which burst from me in my agony? My choice is soon fixed: I cannot hesitate.’

In this form, but often to a greater extent, with more argument, and more erudition, M. Gibert answers the different passages of Voltaire; but chiefly those which are connected with religion. We would not discourage our author from proceeding in a useful plan; but we suspect that those who chiefly want the antidote will be the last to search for it.

204
*The Impostors. A Comedy. Performed at the Theatre-Royal,
Drury-Lane. By Richard Cumberland, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d.
Dilly.*

MR. Cumberland comes to us in so many varied characters, as Observer, Novellist, Painter, and Dramatic Poet, that it can be no great injury to his fame if he should sometimes fail who has often succeeded. The Impostors, who have been already tried, and not only acquitted, but applauded, will not be equally fortunate at the critical bar. Cool, unbiassed attention will see that the plot is meagre, the characters not new, and the conduct of the story often improbable: when the glare of scenery, and the fascination of the action are removed, the language will be found to want that spirit and animation necessary to support the attention through a trite hackneyed story, where the event cannot be for a moment concealed.

The comedy, in its title and general plan, comes very near to the Beaux Stratagem; but in some parts of its conduct we are led to recollect another comedy of inferior merit, but not without an excellent vein of low comic humour, the Custom of the Manor. Lord Janus is the Lurcher, and sir Solomon the sir John English of that piece. In Mr. Cumberland's play, Harry Singleton, lord Janus's valet, assumes his master's title, and is introduced we know not how, to sir Solomon Sapiant, a country baronet, as the lover of his daughter. His servant is a Jew, under the disguise of a Frenchman; and he is reinforced in the first act by Polycarp, a confederate, in the character of his lordship's agent, his lawyer, or his steward. The lady, who at first appears uneducated and unrefined, the miss Hoyden of the drama, probably because the character was given to Mrs. Jordan, becomes at last, discerning, delicate, and sentimental. Such, it may be said, is the power of love; but it appears to us an inconsistency, from the cause just hinted at. In a ride before breakfast, her vicious horse would have thrown her from his back, if a young baronet had not luckily in the moment caught her. He, as may be expected, is immediately in love, and introduced into the house. The fictitious lord Janus, alarmed at the event, because he is known by the baronet, with a pretended jealousy, professes that he will leave it: sir Charles Freemantle, acquainted with lord Janus, whose character is respectable, resigns his fond wishes, and professes that he will not interfere in his friend's pretensions. It is remarkable, though accounted for with some probability, that these two friends should not at first meet: it is more improbable that a meeting should be afterwards appointed in the garden. If this, however, be overlooked, the plot is carried on
with

with dexterity. Harry Singleton goes to the baronet, as the servant, with a message from his lord, and every thing seems likely to succeed; but that the assumed lord is seen to leave the temple where the meeting was; and the baronet declares that he has only seen the servant. The last act is employed in the detection. Though this, with the help of sir Charles, is clear and easy, yet, to fill up the canvas, a quarrel between the two Impostors, in defiance of probability, is introduced. The end is, of course, a marriage between Eleanor and the baronet. The under-plot, viz. the courtship of Polycarp and miss Dorothy, an antiquated cousin, has occurred so often on the stage as to be almost disgusting.

The ignorant baronet, who suspects himself wise, and is in reality a dupe, an amorous old lady, an impudent sharper, and an elegant sentimental baronet, have been characters of the drama from the time of sir William D'Avenant. Those before us are not distinguished by one characteristic trait. The young lady, we have before observed, is an incongruous mixture of two characters; but the former part is conducted with so much naïveté and true humour, that we feel a double disappointment from the change. The sea-captain and Polycarp have so few features peculiarly their own, that we can neither liken them to, or discriminate them from, our former acquaintance on the stage. The language is neat and elegant, often characteristic, but seldom witty. Mr. Cumberland, scarcely in any instance, descends to the equivoque or the pun.

We cannot say that we are greatly pleased with, or that we can strongly commend the whole: the different scenes are, however, conducted with great skill, and are very entertaining. We shall transcribe the first of the second act, where sir Charles Freemantle and the lady begin their acquaintance: it is where miss Eleanor is the unrefined hoyden, and sir Charles the accomplished gentleman of feeling and judgment.

' Sir Charles Freemantle, Eleanor in her riding-habit.

' Sir Charles. Now I have set you safe upon your feet, and you assure me you have got no hurt by your fall, give me leave to say you have had such an escape, as will make it madness if you ever mount the back of that vicious animal any more.

' Eleanor. Yes, we call her the vixen mare; she wou'd have shewn me no mercy if I had hung in my stirrup, and that I must have done if it had not been for you; I shall always believe I owe my life to you.

' Sir Charles. And I shall always consider it as the happiest moment of mine, which brought me to your rescue: may I not know the lady's name I have been thus fortunate in assisting!

' Eleanor. I live at this house which you see; I am the daughter

ter of Sir Solomon Sapient; you are a stranger in these parts—I perceive.

‘*Sir Charles.* I am a traveller, and far from my own home, but though I am a stranger to you, and may never have the happiness of meeting you again, yet I hope you will allow me to request one favour of you.

‘*Eleanor.* Pray do, and I’ll grant it, be it what it will.

‘*Sir Charles.* As this adventure has for ever fixt you in my memory, it will be much for my repose in future would you give me your faithful promise never to commit yourself to that vixen mare, as you call her, any more.

‘*Eleanor.* Goodness alive! do you call that a favour? you must be very kind-hearted to be at such concern about me; but at all events I give you my promise, and if you doubt my keeping it, let your servant take the mare away with him.

‘*Sir Charles.* I shou’d put her to death the next moment were she mine.

‘*Eleanor.* Bless your heart! our folks only laugh at such accidents; but pray now step into the house and rest yourself after your fatigue.

‘*Sir Charles.* I’m afraid I cannot now avail myself of your politeness.

‘*Eleanor.* Politeness! not at all: do now—you might if you wou’d, pray do—never mind your boots; there’s no ceremony—Mercy be good unto me, what a pickle I am in! only look what a petticoat I have got.

‘*Sir Charles.* Come, you are well off to have hurt nothing but your cloaths.

‘*Eleanor.* Oh! hang my cloaths, they are used to it; I thought at first I had put out my ankle: look, what a wrench I have given it! Heyday, what’s here to do? will you be so good to put the lacing of my boor to rights? Don’t you go to say any thing to papa about my fall.

‘*Sir Charles.* Will you conceal it from your father?

[*Sir Charles adjusts her boot.*

‘*Eleanor.* Why aye to be sure—Heh!—what!—isn’t it right? nay, I won’t do it if you think ’tis wrong—Dear! how awkward you go about it; why, that’s not the way. Here! I’ll shew you; you should pass it through here; now you’re right—And so you don’t think I should sink this accident on my father.

‘*Sir Charles.* Perhaps I don’t think a young lady should sink any thing on her father.

‘*Eleanor.* Ah, but that—that won’t always do though;—will it?

‘*Sir Charles.* Heavens! this girl bewitches me—(*aside.*) I shou’d guess you have no secrets you need conceal from your father.

‘*Eleanor.* That’s as much as to say you guess I have no secrets at all.

‘*Sir*

'Sir Charles. Let this little misadventure then stand for one, and when you are at the pains of keeping one, will you consent at my request to keep another?

'Eleanor. By all means; tell it me.

'Sir Charles. This it is then—If I converse with you five minutes longer, I shall be absolutely and irrecoverably in love with you for life.

'Eleanor. Indeed! well, five minutes are soon gone; don't be in a hurry—Hush! hark! what talking's that? sure I hear my father's voice; stay where you are; don't be afraid—I'll be sure to come back to you.' [She runs out.

A Treatise on Mensuration, both in Theory and Practice. The Second Edition, with many Additions. By Charles Hutton, LL. D. F. R. S. &c. &c. Professor of Mathematics in the Royal Military Academy. In one large Volume Octavo. 14s. bound. Robinsons.

IT is about eighteen years since the first edition of this reputable book was published in quarto; of which an account was given in the XXXIId Volume of our Review. As the alterations and additions in this edition are so large and numerous, that it may be almost considered as a new work, it will be proper to notice it again in our Journal. For these improvements, we presume, the public are indebted to the experience in his profession, which Dr. Hutton has acquired by many years practice in the Royal Military Academy of Woolwich. And, from our examination of the work, we do not find ourselves disappointed in expectations founded on such reasonable grounds.

It appears that the work has been new arranged; that great and useful additions are made in almost every part of it; and that some chapters and sections are altered and improved, especially in the practical parts of the subject. We must also commend the economical manner in which this edition appears, in a large octavo volume, which is both cheaper and more convenient for the reader. After a learned prefatory history of Mensuration, and of many other parts of the mathematics, the author gives an analysis of his work, as follows:

'As extensions are of three kinds, longitudinal, superficial, and solid, so in this work the science is treated of as distinguished by nature into these three principal parts; that is, so far as the nature of geometrical figures would conveniently admit. With regard to right lines, plane surfaces, and solids, the distinction is general; but it does not obtain with regard to curved lines and surfaces. For, by preserving this distinction so entire, as to determine the measure of all kinds of lines in the first part, and of all kinds of surfaces in the second, I immediately perceived that the book could not be so conveniently adapted to the proper study

study of the generality of readers: on which account, in the first part, I have treated only of the measure of right lines; and in the second part, only of the measure of planes which are bounded by right and circular lines, without any curve surfaces, excepting that of the sphere. In the third part, which treats of solids, I have generally placed the problems which relate to the measures of the lines, surfaces, and solidities of each particular figure, immediately after each other, because the knowledge of the one commonly led to that of the others. The latter parts of the book are employ'd chiefly about the applications of the general problems to several interesting practical subjects in life.

‘ So much for the distribution and order of the parts in general. I shall now proceed to describe the contents of the parts themselves more particularly.

‘ The whole work consists of five parts.

‘ Part I. Contains the mensuration of right lines and right-angled angles, and is divided into three sections.

‘ Sect. 1. Contains several geometrical definitions and problems; some of which are new, and, it is presumed, they are all more complete, and less exceptionable, than those instead of which they have been substituted. The problems will prepare the learner for making the several figures which are afterwards treated of.

‘ Sect. 2. Contains plane trigonometry, or the measuring of lines and angles. All the cases of trigonometry, both right and oblique angled, are here reduced to three only; by which means they are easier to be remembered, and more clearly understood. Besides these cases, which perform the business in the common way, by means of the sines, tangents, and secants of angles, I have given a new and extensive method, by which all the cases of trigonometry are performed independent of sines, tangents, and secants, and without any kind of tables.

‘ Sect. 3. Contains the application of trigonometry to the determination of heights and distances; in which a great variety of cases and methods concerning this curious subject are explained.

‘ Part II. Treats of superficial mensuration, or the mensuration of plane figures, and is divided into two sections.

‘ Sect. 1. Treats of the areas, &c. of right-lined and circular figures; in which, besides many things that are new and curious, are given an explanation of professor's Machin's celebrated quadrature of the circle, and the demonstrations of some useful approximations to the measures of circular arcs and areas, which had been given by Mr. Huygens and sir Isaac Newton, without demonstrations.

‘ Sect. 2. Contains a curious and useful collection of questions concerning areas, promiscuously placed, and resolved by the rules in the former sections.

‘ Part III. Contains the measuring of solids, and is divided into eight sections.

‘ Sect. 1. Treats of bodies that are bounded by right or circular

cular lines, viz. prisms, pyramids, the sphere, and the circular spindle.

‘ Sect. 2. Treats of the five regular solids or bodies.

‘ Sect. 3. Treats of solid rings.

‘ Sect. 4. Treats of the conic sections in general; and though it be short, it contains several things that are new and of great importance.

‘ Sect. 5. Treats of the ellipse and the figures generated by it, viz. spheroids and elliptic spindles.

‘ Sect. 6. In like manner treats of parabolic lines, areas, surfaces, and solidities. And,

‘ Sect. 7. Of hyperbolic lines, areas, surfaces, and solidities.

‘ In these sections the several figures and bodies are very extensively and particularly handled, many of the rules, &c. both here and throughout the whole book, being new and interesting; and I have given throughout many neat approximations to the values of several things which cannot be truly expressed otherwise than by an infinite series; which approximations are mostly new, excepting two or three that were given by sir Isaac Newton, and which I have demonstrated here for the first time.

‘ Sect. 8. Or the last of this part, contains a promiscuous collection of questions concerning solids, to exercise the learner in the foregoing rules.

‘ Part IV. Contains, in three sections, several subjects relating to mensuration in general.

‘ Sect. 1. Contains a treatise on the true quadrature and cubature of curves in general. In which are contained some of the most universal and important propositions that can be made in the subject.

‘ Sect. 2. Contains the equidistant-ordinate method; or, the approximate quadrature and cubature of curves in general, by means of equidistant ordinates or sections. A subject by which general and finite rules are discovered for all figures; for some of which they are accurately true, and for the others they are very near approximations: which are often the most useful rules that can be applied to many things in real practice.

‘ Sect. 3. Contains, in a very concise but copious treatise, the relations between the areas and solidities of figures, and the centers of gravity of their generating lines and planes.

‘ Then the

‘ Fifth and last Part, in four sections, contains the application of the general rules to the most useful subjects of measuring that happen in ordinary life. In these subjects very material improvements are almost every where made, both with respect to the matters and the disposition of them.

‘ Sect. 1. Contains a very simple treatise of land-surveying; explaining the use of the instruments, the methods of surveying, of planning, of computing the contents, of reducing plans, and of dividing the ground.

‘Sect. 2. Contains a very curious and complete treatise on gauging. As in like manner doth

‘Sect. 3. On the measuring of artificers works; viz. bricklayers, masons, carpenters and joiners, slaters and tilers, plasterers, painters, glaziers, pavers, and plumbers. Containing the description of the carpenter’s rule, the several measures used by each, with the methods of taking the dimensions, and of squaring and summing them up. The whole illustrated by a real case of a building, in which are shewn the methods of entering the dimensions and contents in the pocket-book, of drawing out the abstracts, and from them drawing out the forms of the bills.

‘Sect. 4. Contains a curious treatise on timber-measuring; in which, among several other things, is given a new rule for measuring round timber, which not only gives the content very exact, but it is at the same time as easy in the operation as the common false one, either by the pen or the sliding-rule. It contains also some curious rules for cutting timber to the most advantage.

‘The book then concludes with a large table of the areas of circular segments, extended to ten times the usual length.’

To this ample account of the general contents, we may add some of the more essential additions. In the first section of part I. are given several new problems of curious divisions of circles, construction of scales, and transferring of plans, &c. &c. In sect. 2. the construction of chords, sines, tangents, and secants; with the method of making every side radius in plane right-angled triangles. In sect. 3. a new collection of questions or problems, with their answers; but without the operations, to exercise trigonometry, and heights and distances. In sect. 1. and 4. part II. are many new definitions and figures. In sect. 1. part V. is an entire new treatise on the theory and practice of land-surveying, on a new plan, better adapted to practice and the purposes of teaching than any other we have yet seen. Various improvements are also made in sect 2. and 3. on cask-gauging, and measuring the works of artificers; as also in the fourth or last section, on timber-measuring, with many additional practical questions, for exercises to all the rules or precepts.

Thus improved, the whole forms a complete treatise on the useful and various branches of mensuration, both in theory and practice.

Traacts by Warburton, and a Warburtonian; not admitted into the Collections of their respective Works. 8vo. 5s. in Boards. Dilly.

THE Traacts of Warburton, re-published in this volume, are *Miscellaneous Translations in Prose and Verse*, originally printed in the year 1724, together with *A Critical and Philosophical*

Philosophical Enquiry into the Causes of Prodiges and Miracles, published three years afterwards. As they are not admitted into the late splendid edition of the bishop's works, their appearance in this form, after the lapse of so many years had rendered it difficult to procure them, must afford satisfaction to every man, who, knowing the talents and erudition which distinguished the author's maturer years, wishes to mark the gradual expansion of his mind, and the accumulation of those treasures with which it was stored.

The *Traets*, by a Warburtonian, are, *A Dissertation on the Delicacy of Friendship*, addressed to Dr. Jortin, and *A Letter to Dr. Thomas Leland*, in support of Warburton's idea of an inspired language, as delivered in his *Doctrine of Grace*. The dissertation was first sent into the world in 1755, and was followed by the letter in 1764. Though both anonymous, they have been generally ascribed to the right rev. prelate, who was formerly the friend of Warburton, and is hereafter to appear as his biographer. Of the Letter to Dr. Leland some account may be seen in the XVIII. volume of our Review *; to which, and to the *Traets* themselves, we rather choose to refer our readers, than by recurring to the History of the Warburtonian Controversy, encourage any attempt to renew it. Our unwillingness to do this forbids us also either to praise or censure the spirit by which the Editor of the *Traets* appears to have been actuated. But from such writing as is every where conspicuous in the dedication and preface, neither literary jealousy on the one hand, nor the love of literary peace on the other, can withhold commendation as universal as it is deserved.

Our Editor dedicates the *Traets by a Warburtonian* to a learned critic; and under that title addresses bishop Hurd in a style, which, possessing all the force and severity of Junius, is animated by bolder imagery, and polished, if possible, into greater elegance. On a literary subject, this imagery is often properly drawn from classical and philosophical reading, and from the history, if we may so express ourselves, of criticism and of critics: nor can those to whom such sources are at all accessible, ever hope for a richer assemblage of all that is energetic and beautiful in composition. Where the whole is so good, it is difficult to select any parts superior to the rest: we shall therefore consult our own feelings, by making choice of those which shew the editor can be candid as well as severe; and that, if in the delineation of characters,

* Page 328.

he may sometimes be thought partial, his partiality is the result of a heart enthusiastic in the defence of those whose injuries, whether real or imaginary, it has long been accustomed to deplore. The following compliment to the bishop of Worcester is, indeed, highly ornamented: but its best ornament, in our opinion, is the manly candour which speaks in every part of it.

‘Let me, says he, however, commend both you and the bishop of Gloucester, where commendation is due: and let me bestow it, not with the thrifty and penurious measure of a critic by profession, nor yet, with the coldness and languor of an envious antagonist, but, with the ardent gratitude of a man, whom, after many a painful feeling of weariness and disgust, you have refreshed unexpectedly, and whom, as if by some secret touch of magic, you have charmed and overpowered with the most exquisite sense of delight. Yes, my lord, in a few lucky and lucid intervals between the paroxysms of your polemical frenzy, all the laughable and all the loathsome singularities which floated upon the surface of your diction, have in a moment vanished, while, in their stead, beauties equally striking from their suddenness, their originality, and their splendour, have burst in a “flood of glory” upon the astonished and enraptured reader. Often has my mind hung with fondness and with admiration over the crowded, yet clear and luminous galaxies of imagery diffused through the works of bishop Taylor, the mild and un sullied lustre of Addison, the variegated and expanded eloquence of Burke, the exuberance and dignified ease of Middleton, the gorgeous declamation of Bolingbroke, and the majestic energy of Johnson. But if I were to do justice, my lord, to the more excellent parts of your own writings and of Warburton’s, I should say that the English language, even in its widest extent, cannot furnish passages more strongly marked, either by grandeur in the thought, by felicity in the expression, by pauses varied and harmonious, or by full and sonorous periods.’

From the preface we shall only transcribe the character of Jortin; and we shall transcribe it without a single remark; since, to adopt the glowing language of the learned editor, ‘He that can read such passages without rapture, must suspect the sincerity of his own benevolence. He that speaks of them without approbation, must renounce his pretensions to impartiality or taste, to exactness of discrimination, or delicacy of feeling.’

‘As to Jortin, whether I look back to his verse, to his prose, to his critical, or to his theological works, there are few authors to whom I am so much indebted for rational entertainment, or for solid instruction. Learned he was, without pedantry. He was ingenious without the affectation of singularity. He was a lover

lover of truth, without hovering over the gloomy abyss of scepticism, and a friend to free-enquiry, without roving into the dreary and pathless wilds of latitudinarianism. He had a heart, which never disgraced the powers of his understanding. With a lively imagination, an elegant taste, and a judgment most masculine and most correct, he united the artless and amiable negligence of a school-boy. Wit without ill-nature, and sense without effort, he could, at will, scatter upon every subject; and in every book, the writer presents us with a near and distinct view of the real man.

— ut omnis

Votivâ pateat tanquam descripta tabellâ

Vita senis. —

Hor. Sat. i. lib. 2.

His style, though artificial, is sometimes elevated: though familiar, it is never mean; and though employed upon various topics of theology, ethics, and criticism, it is not arrayed in any delusive resemblance, either, of solemnity, from fanatical cant, of profoundness from scholastic jargon, of precision, from the crabbed formalities of cloudy philologists, or of refinement, from the technical babble of frivolous connoisseurs.

At the shadowy and fleeting reputation which is sometimes gained by the petty frolics of literary vanity, or the mischievous struggles of controversial rage, Jortin never grasped. Truth, which some men are ambitious of seizing by surprize in the trackless and dark recess, he was content to overtake in the broad and beaten path; and in the pursuit of it, if he does not excite our astonishment by the rapidity of his strides, he, at least, secures our confidence by the firmness of his step. To the examination of positions advanced by other men, he always brought a mind, which neither prepossession had seduced, nor malice polluted. He imposed not his own conjectures as infallible and irresistible truths, nor endeavoured to give an air of importance to trifles, by dogmatical vehemence. He could support his more serious opinions, without the versatility of a sophist, the fierceness of a disputant, or the impertinence of a buffoon—more than this—he could relinquish or correct them with the calm and steady dignity of a writer, who, while he yielded something to the arguments of his antagonists, was conscious of retaining enough to command their respect. He had too much discernment to confound difference of opinion with malignity or dullness, and too much candour to insult, where he could not persuade. Though his sensibilities were neither coarse nor sluggish, he yet was exempt from those fickle humours, those rankling jealousies, and that restless waywardness, which men of the brightest talents are too prone to indulge. He carried with him, into every station in which he was placed, and every subject which he explored, a solid greatness of soul, which could spare an inferior, though in the offensive form of an adversary, and endure an equal with, or without, the sa-

cred name of friend. The importance of commendation, as well to him who bestows, as to him who claims it, he estimated not only with justice, but with delicacy, and therefore he neither wantonly lavished it, nor withheld it austerely. But invective he neither provoked nor feared; and, as to the severities of contempt, he reserved them for occasions where alone they could be employed with propriety, and where, by himself, they always were employed with effect—for the chastisement of arrogant dunces, of censorious sciolists, of intolerant bigots in every sect, and unprincipled impostors in every profession.

Observations upon the late National Embarrassment, and the Proceedings in Parliament relative to the same. By John Lewis de Lolme, LL. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

MR. De Lolme's judicious Treatise on the Constitution of England must always procure a favourable reception to whatever observations he publishes on that interesting subject; especially at a time of great public embarrassment, and when different opinions are maintained with regard to the forms of procedure in political measures of the utmost importance to the nation. We therefore took up the production with a degree of predilection for its author, and have given it such an attentive perusal as was due to the celebrity of his name.

M. De Lolme sets out with observing that the questions by which the attention is at the present time * engaged, have been misunderstood in regard to three points: viz. 1. The king's present situation, that is to say, his *political* situation, has not been considered in the properest light. 2. The legal claims of the heir-apparent have been misrepresented. 3. The legal situation and claims of the parliament, at the present juncture, have also been mistated.

In respect to the first of these propositions, the author endeavours to show, that the situation of his majesty, during the late political contests, could not be properly termed a case of *sickness* or *infirmity*, nor of infancy. He likewise observes, that it could not be compared to a common case of *absence*, such as that of Don Sebastian, king of Portugal, or king Richard I. of England. The author has taken much pains to illustrate the particular nature of those several cases, and to evince a general dissimilitude between each of them and that of his majesty.

Proceeding to discussions of a more important nature, the author puts the following question:

* This pamphlet was written previously to the 23d of January last.

‘ Is the parliament now assembled at Westminster entitled to assume the royal authority ? Are they to be considered in the same light with the Convention parliament who were sitting at the time of the Revolution in the year 1688 ?’

M. De Lolme enters not immediately upon the consideration of the first part of this question ; but begins with drawing a comparison between the parliament now assembled at Westminster, and the Convention-parliament of the year 1688 ; showing that the latter was a self-named parliament, that is to say, a parliament named by the people of their own accord, in consequence, not of regal writs, but of circular letters sent round the country among themselves. It was likewise peculiar to the convention-parliament, that no period, except that of their own choice, was prescribed to its duration. The present parliament, on the contrary, was called together by a king, in consequence of writs issued from a king, and it is dependent both upon the life and will of the king.

M. De Lolme afterwards asks, ‘ Upon what ground are the present parliament proceeding to assume the royal authority ?’ He observes, that since they have averred that the king’s authority continues *entire*, they cannot assume, or any how meddle with, such *entire* authority, otherwise than by virtue of a king’s trust and charge to that purpose. ‘ How, then, adds he, have the parliament proved such general trust from the king ?’ To this question we shall subjoin the answer, in the author’s own words.

‘ They have proved the same, not by means of any writing from the king, expressive of such trust : the parliament have grounded the general trust they claim, upon circumstances : they have, it appears, grounded this trust upon the circumstance of the king having originally called them together,—of his having met them at different times,—and of his having appointed them to meet him on the 20th day of last November ; on which day they did accordingly assemble. These circumstances supply no bad plea or claim : the parliament have considered them as amounting to a king’s general trust for governing his kingdom, and exercising his royal authority in his name : this trust they have accepted ; and they are accordingly preparing to discharge the same, and exercise the royal authority.’

M. de Lolme, assuming as a principle, that the parliament has accepted from the king the general trust of governing the kingdom in his name, sets himself next to enquire into the consequences of this situation ; contending that, according to an act of the legislature, passed in 1705, all the members of the present parliament have, *ipso facto*, vacated their seats, by accepting an office under the authority of the crown. Thus, admitting the

fact to be as stated by M. De Lolme, there would result this very extraordinary conclusion, namely, that the parliament, by the very act of accepting a power become necessary for the existence of government, were rendered absolutely incapable of exercising that power. M. De Lolme, we are persuaded, knows sufficiently well, it is a maxim in logic, that if an absurd conclusion be fairly deduced from preceding propositions, the premises must be erroneous; and this, we think, is evidently the case with regard to the subject now before us. On the late extraordinary emergency, the parliament had not assumed to themselves any power, as a trust from the king, but really as a trust from the constitution; the very existence of government depending upon their determination at that crisis. Substituting, therefore, this alteration in our author's proposition, the whole of the political embarrassment, which he has so ingeniously delineated, will be entirely removed.

Our author, in treating of the regency, observes, 'if a certain number of associates are joined to the regent, under the name of a Council of Regency, this council will be liable to disagree among themselves: therefore, how will they secure a prospect of bringing national matters to a final union?'

The same objection which M. De Lolme makes to a Council of Regency, might be applied to the Privy Council, which he certainly does not regard as inexpedient in the British constitution.

The following extract contains our author's opinion relative to the right of the heir-apparent,

'He has a right to interfere with that authority in the capacity of a partner, or an assistant, to that authority,—an assistant named, and pointed out, and provided beforehand, by the law of the country, for the purpose of supplying the deficiency of the person with whom the actual management of the royal authority is entrusted: it is here meant to speak of the case of a thorough deficiency, when neither orders nor directions of any kind can possibly be received from the person to whom this royal authority is trusted. In such a case it is not only the right, but it is also the duty of the heir apparent to come forth and offer his assistance; he is like a person purposely set apart, and relied upon by the law, for such an occasion. The meaning of his being an heir apparent, is positively that he is invested with the office we mention, namely, of supplying the thorough deficiency, or thorough absence, an absence amounting to death, or suspicion of death, of the person entrusted with the management of the royal authority.'

The

The opinion above expressed, relative to the right of the heir-apparent, is founded, indeed, upon a *liberal* construction of the term; but such a one, nevertheless, as is repugnant to analogy, respecting heirs in general, and totally unsupported by precedents in the British history. We appeal to M. De Lolme himself, whether it be not likewise inconsistent with the genius of the British government.

We have frequently had occasion, and have always embraced the opportunity with pleasure, to repeat our commendation of M. De Lolme's capital work mentioned in the beginning of the present article. He has surveyed the constitution of England with the eye of a politician and a philosopher, uninfluenced by every consideration but that of impartial enquiry. We therefore cannot avoid expressing a desire, that in delivering his sentiments on subjects of political contest, he would guard with the utmost caution against espousing the cause of any party, lest his authority, if warped with prejudices, should mislead, instead of informing, any reader who reposed an implicit confidence in his judgment.

An Answer to Mr. De Lolme's Observations on the late National Embarrassment. By Neptune. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

THIS author examines the Observations with more minuteness than was perhaps necessary, upon a subject where M. De Lolme seems to have abandoned the plain road of political enquiry, for a train of metaphysical distinctions. That, in this dispute, he has the superiority of M. De Lolme, is a point which admits of little doubt; but while we make this acknowledgement, we must express our entire disapprobation of that personal acrimony which appears in several parts of the production before us. In general, the author argues with justness, but in warmth he is much too intemperate.

FOREIGN ARTICLE.

Examen d'un Livre intitulé 'Considerations sur la Guerre actuelle des Turcs, par M. Volney.' Par M. de Peyssonel, ancien Consul general de France à Smyrne. Paris.

AS we gave some account of M. Volney's work, volume LXIV. p. 131, we have taken the earliest opportunity to examine M. de Peyssonel's very particular, and sometimes acrimonious reply to it. M. Volney's information was confessedly collected from what he saw during a short stay in the different provinces; M. de Peyssonel resided for a long time in the capital; the former saw only appearances of weakness, of a
corrupt

corrupt administration, of little discipline, and less subordination; while the other, at the source of power, at the fountain of authority, perceived a less turbid stream directed into its various channels by a steadier hand. In this instance, we have not considered the prejudices of each author, the medium that colours or obscures the prospect; and we think that each of these antagonists have been misled by its hue. But we shall follow M. Peyssonel at some distance, and point out a few of the most important objections to M. Volney's representations.

'M. Volney's work (says his critic) is very well written: if his facts are exact, his principles true, its consequences just, it is an additional merit: if the facts are false or distorted, the principles erroneous, and the consequences drawn without precision, it is an additional fault.' This, therefore, is the text on which M. de Peyssonel expatiates: he examines the facts, the principles, and the consequences; but when he has weighed them in his balance, they are found wanting. It is observed that M. Volney is little acquainted with the Ottoman history, with the laws, the alliances, and even the geography of the Turkish empire. He speaks, for instance, of what the Grand Signor has ceded since the peace of Kainardgik, when, in reality, every thing was given up by that treaty. The consanguinity which M. Volney mentions between the house of Othman and the Tartarian princes, M. de Peyssonel observes is wholly imaginary. He speaks of the execution of Giskas, formerly hospodar of Moldavia, as an assassination, though he was clearly convicted of treachery, and corresponding with the enemies of the Porte.

There is but one law, says M. Volney, and that law forbids an alliance with infidels; but M. Peyssonel, with too captious exception, requires him to produce the law: that author meant that it was their chief maxim, or the first principle of their conduct. Mahomet, says he, was in alliance with a Jewish tribe against the Courischites: Solyman with Francis I.: and the Porte has at different times, we suppose they have at present, treaties of alliance with Sweden and Poland. Its capitulations, adds M. Peyssonel, with France, England, Holland, Sweden, and Denmark, are treaties of friendship and commerce, which the Turkish ambassadors swore on the souls of their ancestors, to keep; their most sacred and inviolate oath, which the successors of the caliphs would not have pronounced, if it had been illegal. M. Volney says, that Vienna was besieged by the famous visir Kiuperli; but from the facts adduced in this examination, the account appears to be erroneous. The Turks treat the French, says M. Volney, with the greatest contempt; but in answer, it is alleged, that in all the treaties, the Emperor is prodigal of his titles and his compliments to the king of France: words, as Voltaire says, cost nothing. Among the herd of sultans also, since Solyman the First, our author finds many wise and valiant, though M. Volney had, with some justice, branded them all with the stigma of luxury and effeminacy.

But

But it would be useless to fight with this violent and fastidious antagonist, over every spot of the ground where he finds something to oppose and to contradict. Let the fields be fertile, as they would certainly be under a free government, for the soil and the climate are in general excellent; let the artizans be ingenious, the army brave; the resources inexhaustible: on each subject the picture is different, and frequently the truth lies between; but we must now follow the political part of the work, in which we formerly considered M. Volney as too hasty, and we think so still, though the fall of Choczim and Oczakow have given the semblance of credit to his predictions, a semblance lessened by recollecting the dear rate at which they have been purchased.

M. Peyssonel examines the political part of his antagonist's work with some precision; he endeavours to reduce the question to self-evident truths, and combats the ideal prospect of M. Volney by a more faithful picture of the different situations at present. He supposes that every nation is interested in preventing empires from becoming too large and too powerful; in checking the growth of a huge giant, whose power will subdue whatever may be within his reach. Europe owes her minute divisions to this attentive care of the balance of power; but she owes to it also a restless watchfulness, which keeps her always unhappy, and bloody as well as expensive wars, which drain her riches. M. Peyssonel answers the political reflections of his antagonist respecting the separate interests of Spain, England, and Germany, shortly, and reserves his whole power for the question relating to France, who would feel, he suspects, the greatest injuries, if the Turkish empire were subdued and divided.

What M. Volney calls the effects of ancient habits, our present author has shewn to be a series of political connections of the greatest importance, ever since the reign of Solymán I; and he concludes, with some justice, that the friendship must be truly valuable, which so many monarchs, differing in their other plans, have cherished with so much care. The present weakness of the Turks is no greater argument against this connection than the weakness of the French would have been in 1763 (erroneously said 1756) if the Grand Signior had endeavoured at that time to break through the ties of the alliance. The other arguments drawn from the change of situation, the perfidy of Turkish politics, different alliances and consanguinities; above all, what appears singularly displeasing to the author of the examination, the contemptuous treatment of France, and even her ambassadors in Turkey, are answered at some length, and with no little severity.

M. Volney has asserted that the Mediterranean powers are indifferent to the conquests of the Russians. The little inconsiderable republic of Ragusa showed, in the last war, a very different spirit. When the Russian fleet arrived in the Archipelago, they insisted on the republic receiving the line of battle ship in
its

its harbour. On their refusal, the Ragusan ships were captured, the harbour blocked up, and the city threatened with a bombardment. This little state, which scarcely contains 65,000 men, continued firm, prepared for an obstinate defence, and nominated an ambassador to Petersburg. The count de Ragni went on this commission at his own expence; but, without being admitted to an audience, was referred to count Orloff, then at Pisa. On his going away, the empress sent him a bason full of rubles; he took only one, and returned the rest; when he met the count, he was informed that a preliminary to the treaty was the establishment of the Greek church at Ragusa; but Ragni answered, 'I am forbid to hear any proposition of this kind; her Imperial majesty may bombard Ragusa; but to the moment of her destruction, the republic will accept of no condition contrary to her treaties with the Porte.'

The restoration of the arts, the genius, and the liberty of Greece, is a splendid object in M. Volney's plan. Our author argues patriotically, as a Frenchman, and hangs M. Volney on the horns of a dilemma: Either the industry, the progress of agriculture, the arts, the manufactures, the population, and consequently the power of Greece, under its new sovereigns will increase, when the consequences of this prosperity will be fatal to us; or Greece will remain poor, inactive, and contemptible, when it will not be easy to say, that she has gained by the change. We are convinced, however, that M. Volney can escape from this difficulty with no great exertion of ingenuity.

The destruction of the beautiful remains of antiquity are often traced to the moment when the crescent was victorious in Greece; but M. Peyssonel is of a very different opinion, and attributes these fatal devastations to inconsiderate Christians, to the weak and tumultuary reigns of the later emperors, to the anarchy and confusion in consequence of disputed successions. We have lately travelled over these spots with the philosophical and enlightened Gibbon, we have looked at them with the entertaining and elegant lady Craven; and though we allow, with our author, that enthusiastic Christians and tumultuary mobs begun the havoc, the Turkish governors continued and almost completed it. We cannot attribute to the Christians the weak, depressed state of those among whom science, arts, and literature, blazed with its greatest lustre, and whose brilliancy was only obscured by monarchy, though it was totally lost by that worst of despotism, subordinate tyranny.

Let us, however, follow M. Peyssonel more closely in his conclusion. 'M. Volney (says he) has given his reasons why France should avoid war; because, "if it be undertaken for the sake of commerce, it will cost more than it will bring in return; if undertaken for conquest, as much will be lost by success as by defeat." I have, in answer to him, given the reasons why France should not neglect any means of hindering the revolution, because it can never be wise for her, or for any European power, to
suffer

suffer two Colossuses to arise, in comparison with which she will be a pigmy ; because a wise government should consider of its nature safety, and guard against future oppression ; because at a time when men fight only for commerce, and mercantile arrangements influence every cabinet, it is proper to preserve our commerce, which can alone support our population, our industry, our land-forces, our marine, and our *superiority*. M. Volney will perhaps tell me that philosophy and humanity are alarmed ; but if the designed revolution be affected, what will mankind gain ? The resistance of the powers who will oppose this boasted change, will produce long and dreadful wars. Numerous nations will only change their masters ; the avarice of the conquerors will pillage them after they are subdued ; and perhaps under this new yoke they will only regret their former tyrants. Philosophy and humanity will perceive, though too late, that the politician understands their interests better than themselves ; that without being inattentive to their precepts, he only practises them, after having provided for the surety of the states to be governed. They will at last shed bitter tears for having caused the misfortunes of mankind.'

We can praise M. Peyssonel for his language, and the animation with which he has enlivened the controversy ; but, through the whole, we perceive the dictates of interest and prejudice. We have blamed M. Volney's precipitancy, though we must censure the blind zeal of his antagonist in favour of a people and a government whose maxims and conduct, philosophy and humanity will always hold in abhorrence.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

(Continued from p. 145.)

AS an Appendage to our sketch of Philosophy, we shall now endeavour to follow M. de Saussure in his last journey to the Alps, and to give some account of his philosophical experiments in that exalted region, where the steadiness of an air-balloon might be equally advantageous, but where the precarious situation of the operator, his short stay, and his confined limits, are alike unsuitable to calm enquiry.

This very celebrated philosopher, some months since, announced his intended journey ; and as it was common to reach the tops of mountains early in the morning, and to quit them before night, the different travellers consequently found themselves in the same spot at the same hours ; so that the state of the air at other hours, and during the night, was unknown : this deficiency he wished to supply, by remaining long enough to observe the variations of the meteorological instruments through whole days, and to examine the different meteors, as wind and rain, at the moment of their formation. Different experiments
also

also which he had designed to try on Mount Blanc, but which were prevented by the necessary shortness of his stay, might then be completed. The difficulty was to find a spot elevated 1800 toises, without snow, where the winds and the meteors might be uninterruptedly observed. At last a place was fixed on in the newly discovered road from Chamouni to Courmayeur, passing by the Talcu. It was called the Col de Geant, since it led to a sharp pointed rock called the Geant, and was really distinct from the Talcu. It proved, however, to be but 1763 toises in height, about two miles and a quarter. Here a hovel was built, and the other apartments were furnished by tents carried with them, since different instruments were required, and it was necessary that some should be kept distinct from the others, particularly the magnetometer and the variation-compass. Their passage was, as usual, difficult and dangerous: they were alarmed with the cry of 'rope, rope,' and found one of their guides had fallen into a ravine 60 feet deep, over which he had endeavoured to walk, seduced by a thin and insecure crust of snow and ice. Alexis Balmat, the unfortunate sufferer, we suspect the first who ascended Mont Blanc, was, however, recovered without any material injury, since he had found a support at about thirty feet from the surface; and they arrived at last at the Giant's Neck, where their hovel was discovered to be pervious to the snow, narrow and inconvenient; their instruments injured by the dryness of the air in their journey, and their more immediate prospects gloomy and uncomfortable. Such, however, was their chosen situation: they pitched their tents, repaired their instruments, and began to prepare for their observations. The ensuing night they slept well, and in the next day, the 4th of July, fixed their magnetometer and compass, secured their tents, and prepared for the storm which seemed to impend. The tremendous scene which followed we shall describe in our author's own words.

'About an hour after midnight the wind rose from the south-west, and blew with such violence that I expected every moment the hovel, where my son and I lay, would have been carried away. The wind was peculiar in this respect, that it was periodically interrupted by the most perfect calm; and, in this interval, we heard it roar in the valley below us. But these calms were followed by gusts of inexpressible violence: they were redoubled strokes like discharges of cannon; and we even felt the mountain vibrate under our mattresses. The wind pierced the joints of our walls, and once lifted up all my cloaths, and chilled me from the head to the feet. It was a little calm at break of day, but the storm returned soon, accompanied with snow, which entered our hut on every side. We then flew to one of the tents, where we were more securely protected. The guides were constantly obliged to hold the cords, lest the wind should sweep the whole away. At seven in the morning hail and thunder were added to the wind; and the claps succeeded each other without interruption. One stroke was so near us, that
we

we heard distinctly the spark crackling along the moistened cloth of our tent, at the back of the spot where my son sat. The air was so full of electricity, that if I put out for a moment the point of the conductor of my electrometer, the balls diverged so far as the thread would allow; and, at almost every explosion, the electricity changed from positive to negative, or the contrary. To form some idea of the intensity of the wind, I shall only say that our guides, choosing the moment of calm to fetch some provision from the other tent, not eighteen paces distant, were twice stopped by a violent blast, and escaped only by clinging to a rock, which they luckily found near them. They remained in that position, with their cloaths blown over their heads, and their bodies bruised by the pelting of the pitiless storm, till a temporary calm permitted them to proceed.

About mid-day the weather cleared up, and our travellers were well pleased to find that their cabin, miserable as it appeared, was still proof to the violence of the storm and the combination of every element. They continued with ardour their preparations, and their observations: the younger M. Saussure was engaged from four to seven o'clock; and the father from seven in the morning to midnight. In this full employment the time passed on with rapidity; but in bad weather the cold was excessive, as well as in the evenings of even the finest days. Almost every evening a blast of wind came from the north west, where rocks covered with snow hung over them; and this wind, often accompanied with snow and hail, was extremely cold. The warmest cloaths or the thickest furs were of little consequence; and their hovel, always penetrated by the wind, could not be warmed by their insignificant stoves, where the fire, from the rarefaction of the air, would with difficulty burn. If they had been higher the cold would have been worse; but they were now 180 toises above the top of the Buë, formerly thought the highest accessible summit of the Alps.

About ten o'clock the wind usually grew calm; and then our author, leaving his son asleep, went to the tent of the variation compass, wrapt in furs, with a warm stone under his feet, to transcribe his remarks. He went out occasionally to observe the heavens, and his instruments. 'These hours of retirement and contemplation appeared to me, he says, inexpressibly pleasant: I returned to lay down by the side of my son, and slept better than on my bed in the plain.'

'The sixteenth, and last evening,' for we shall again follow our author's words, 'that we spent on the mountain, was extremely beautiful: it seemed as if these towering pics were unwilling that we should leave them without regret. The cold wind, which usually rendered the evenings so unpleasant, did not blow. The cliffs which rose in dominion over us, and the snow which divided them, was coloured with the most beautiful shades of the rose and of carmine: all the horizon of Italy seemed surrounded with a large purple girdle; and the full moon

moon rose above this band, with the majesty of a queen, and a hue of the most beautiful vermillion. The air around us was so perfectly pure and limpid, as Homer describes that of Olympus to have been, while the valleys, filled with condensed vapours, seemed to be the residence of obscurity and darkness.

‘But how shall I paint the night which succeeded this beautiful evening when, after the twilight, the moon shining alone in the heavens, threw streams of its silver light on the vast circle of snow, and rocks which surrounded our hut? How delightful and astonishing was the appearance of that snow and that ice, whose brilliancy is insufferable in the light of the sun, when illuminated by the softened gleam of this nocturnal torch! what a magnificent contrast did those embrowned rocks of granite, so boldly and clearly defined, form with the surrounding snow! what a moment for meditation! For how many pains, how many moments, lost to pleasure, would not this spectacle compensate? The soul is elevated; the mental views are more sublime; and, in the midst of this majestic silence, we seem to hear the voice of nature, and to be entrusted with her most secret operations.’

The philosophical experiments on this mountain were extremely curious. The latitude of the spot was $45^{\circ} 49' 54''$. Its longitude could not be ascertained, as the watch was injured in the journey. As it was designed to verify the different formulæ for measurement by the barometer, the height was determined trigonometrically, and was found, as we have said, to be 1763 toises above the Mediterranean, and 1223 toises above the priory of Chamouni. From 85 different observations of the barometer, the mean was nearly 19 inches (18 inches, 11 lines, and $\frac{5688}{10000}$ of a line). The corresponding observations at Chamouni gave for a mean 25 inches, and $\frac{102}{1000}$ of a line*. The mean heat of the air at this time on the mountain was $3^{\circ} \frac{630}{10000}$, and at Chamouni $17^{\circ} \frac{288}{10000}$ of Reaumur. The height of the mountain above the priory is therefore, according to M. Trembley's formula, 1207 toises, that is 16 toises too little; according to M. de Luc, 1178 toises, 45 toises too little; a greater error than M. Trembley's by 29 toises. From the observations made at Geneva, the height of the mountain is 1570 toises above the level of the lake. It appears, therefore, that the barometer gave, according to M. Trembley's method, the height within about 32 yards on the whole distance; so that the error was very little more than $\frac{1}{124}$ part.

The rocks are either masses of granite, or of the foliated granite, with the veins usually found in rocks of the latter kind. The strata are vertical, or inclined a little from the north-east to the south-west. The structure of Mount Blanc is in no place

* We have not reduced these measures, since the nearest numbers are sufficiently correct for common readers; and the reduction would be useless to calculators. It is well known, we presume, that a line is equal to one twelfth of an inch.

so conspicuous as on the side next the Col de Geant. Even under its pic, the edges of the vertical strata, of which the vast mass is composed, are plainly visible. The observer cannot easily be deceived, and the outer strata appear like planks piled against a wall. On this side nothing which resembles the (*couches renversées*) overturned strata, which flank the northern part, are to be discovered. Between the laminae water filters, and, in freezing, frequently bursts them asunder. Scarce an hour passed in which our observers did not hear a loud report from this cause. The waters also produce rock-crystals very brilliant and large, but rarely clear. Some crystals of felt-spar, of a rhomboidal shape, and encrusted with green earth, were found. This earth is often accumulated among the crystals. In descending they found a little bit of molybdæna crystallized, in a stone of the nature of granulated felt-spar; this stone formed a vein between the strata of granite, and was found on the side of Courmayeur.

The only animal which inhabits this aerial residence is a black spider; and it was found under the stones. But the travellers were visited by three chamois (mountain goats) in their progress from the valley of Aoste in Savoy. They saw three kinds of birds, the *pie de murailles* (*picus muralis*, *certhia muraria*, Lin. the wall-creeper, or spider-catcher of Edwards), *fringilla albicans*, Lin. (the sea-lark of Ray), and the Alpine choughs. The first appeared only once; but the last made them frequent visits, for as their residence was between two glaciers, when the wind was on one side the other was calm, and various insects, carried away in shoals by the winds, were picked up by these choughs. The only perfect plant was the *diapensia Helvetica*; and in every sheltered spot, their white and purple flowers enlivened the rude appearance of the mountain: there were various lichens, which M. de Saussure purposes to study at his leisure.

The variation of the barometer was not considerable; yet it was greatest on the mountain, less at Geneva, and least of all in the intermediate spot of Chamouni. It seems that the storm did not greatly affect the state of the air above or below; it does not appear that it reached even to Chamouni. The variation from its greatest to its least height was scarcely more than one sixth of an inch. When the progress of the different barometers is compared at different hours of the day, there were some remarkable circumstances. On the hill, the barometer was lowest at eight in the morning, it rose till two in the afternoon; between two and four it descended a little, and then rose during the rest of the evening. At Geneva, it was highest at eight, and sunk till four, when it had reached its lowest point: it then rose during the rest of the evening. The same happened at Chamouni, where the diurnal variations are the greatest; and it is observable, that these variations are in the inverse ratio of the absolute variations. M. de Luc, who, in part, made the same observations, explains it in a way sufficiently satisfactory. The

increasing heat of the day, he says, dilating the air of the plain, forces it to rise over the mountains; but as it rises it is in some measure dispersed, and lessens, therefore, the weight over the lower barometer. The situation of Chamouni, in a confined valley, which occasions greater heat, and where the surrounding mountains prevent the dispersion, may cause the peculiar appearances observed at the Priory. We perceive that the time when the barometers are nearest together is about noon, and this is the period which appears best adapted for measurements with this instrument, if the heat did not in some degree also influence the accuracy of the observations at this time.

The lowest degree of the thermometer was $2^{\circ}.2$ of Reaumur, about $27\frac{1}{2}$ (it was in July) of Fahrenheit, and the highest was $8^{\circ}.3$, equal to about $50\frac{1}{4}$ of Fahrenheit. From the continued series of observations it appeared that, on the mountain as well as in the plain, the coldest period of the twenty-four hours is four in the morning, or very nearly that of sun-rise; and the hottest period, in each, is two in the afternoon. At Chamouni, the hottest period is at noon, probably from the reverberation of heat from the mountains. Perhaps, more accurately, the hottest time in the former is between one and two, and at the last place between twelve and one. The sun, our author observes, seems to act with less force on the mountains, since the difference between the greatest and least heat is less. The difference (we may neglect the fractions) is at the Col de Geant 4° , at Chamouni 10° , and at Geneva 11° . We may also suppose that the difference between winter and summer is less on the mountains than on the plains; but in summer, the time when the heat approaches nearest to the mean heat of the day, is on the mountain a little after six in the morning, and between six and seven in the evening; at Chamouni, a little before eight in the morning, and towards eight in the evening; at Geneva, towards nine in the morning, and seven in the evening. While they were on the mountain in July, the cold was nearly that of the preceding January at Geneva.

These observations are not curious only, for, as M. Saussure has shown, they may be applied to useful astronomical purposes. M. Oriani, in his *Astronomical Essays* for the last year, at Milan, has inserted a very interesting memoir on refractions; but he has supposed with Euler, that the heat of the air, on which its density depends, decreases in an harmonical progression; but the progression from these experiments appears to be much more rapid, and to approach very nearly to an arithmetical one. Our author supposes that it decreases a degree of Reaumur for every 100 toises, or nine degrees of Fahrenheit for every 400 toises, that is pretty exactly one degree of Fahrenheit to every ninety-five English yards. If then this progression be allowed, and it be admitted with M. Tremblay, that a degree of Reaumur can condense the cold $\frac{1}{192}$ part of its bulk, to find it reduced to one half its bulk, it will be necessary to rise 13320 toises, five and a half

a half times as high as Mount Blanc. M. Oriani makes this height, from his own calculations, to be more than double, or 27778 toises. In winter our author observes the progression must be less rapid, for reasons already assigned, viz. the less difference of the heat in winter between that of the mountains and the plains. At this time 150 toises only may be allowed for a degree of Reaumur, or $142\frac{1}{2}$ English yards for a degree of Fahrenheit. Yet these variations do not probably go to a great height, and at 6 or 7000 toises from the earth, day and night, summer and winter, are distinguished by nearly the same temperature.

The next object of our author's attention is, a comparison between the height of a thermometer in the air and another in the shade, in a similar situation. Every precaution was taken to have thermometers acutely sensible, and to prevent their being affected by a reflected sun, a circumstance which more often influences meteorological observations than philosophers have hitherto suspected. The mean difference from thirty-nine observations, was about a degree and three fourths; but it was remarkable, that in some instances there was a difference of 4° , and in others none at all. M. de Saussure arranged his observations, taken every two hours, regularly, and he found that the hour when the sun seems to have least activity in producing the difference is that of noon; and the greatest influence appears in the morning and evening most distant from noon. M. l'Évesque, the usual observer in these experiments, placed at Chamouni, found the same result, except that the influence of the sun appeared a little greater at the Priory. The mean difference was there more than 2° , and the greatest difference about 6° , while the least was sensible, and amounted to $\frac{1}{10}$ of a degree. This variation surprises our author: it cannot, he thinks, proceed from the heat of the air being more nearly equal to that of the sun, for, on the hill, the minimum of the direct action does not correspond to the maximum of the heat of the air. The agitation of the air may perhaps have more effect, since the greatest differences seem to be connected with the most perfect calm; for the agitated air may take away part of the heat communicated by the sun. It cannot be the heat of the air, exposed to the action of the sun, that gives the appearance of greater heat to the thermometer, since even a stick held between the thermometer and the sun has produced considerable variations; and the air can never be so calm as to be without a motion, which would be perceptible in so small a space. In fact, we suspect that our author has looked too deep for the cause, and does not perceive, that in the thinnest and most transparent glass, the upper surface will reflect the oblique rays. We believe that the close contact of the mercury to the internal surface may also make a reflecting one. If this be the case then, the shaded and the illuminated thermometer are, at noon, nearly in the same state: they both receive only the reflected heat of the earth, and

the very little heat conducted by the imperfect medium of the air. When the rays are more oblique a greater number pass through the mercury, and communicate a degree of heat which the shaded thermometer is deprived of. However it may be, we think with our author and the best observers, that the thermometer examined with a view to correct the heights of mountains, found by the barometer, should be placed in the shade; and that some of the anomalies which M. de Lue discovered, may be attributed to his thermometer being placed in the sun.

[We hoped to have finished this very curious and philosophical narrative; but its length, and other circumstances, oblige us to defer that part which remains.]

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

POLITICAL.

Alfred; or, a Narrative of the daring and illegal Measures to suppress a Pamphlet intitled Strictures on the Declaration of Horne Tooke, Esq. respecting "Her Royal Highness the Princess of Wales," commonly called Mrs. Fitzherbert. With interesting Remarks on a Regency. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Printed for the Author.

THIS writer appears to be a zealous and undaunted champion in the province of politics, which, indeed, he traverses with a look and air peculiarly characteristic of conviction in sentiment, as well as ungovernable licence in the mode of declaring it. He is an avowed admirer of the administration of Mr. Pitt, and a no less avowed contemner of those who are styled the Opposition. But what chiefly claims our notice, is the freedom with which he addresses his royal highness the prince of Wales, and a lady, to whom, upon the authority of Mr. Horne Tooke, he gives the title of her royal highness the princess of Wales. It is difficult to say, whether these parts of the pamphlet are more distinguished by an appearance of indignation, or a severity of sarcasm; but though he seems to speak the language of sincerity, we cannot but disapprove, in the strongest terms, of his unjustifiable vehemence.

Dr. Withers, the author now before us, had lately written a pamphlet, entitled, 'Strictures on the Declaration of Horne Tooke, esq. respecting "Her royal highness the princess of Wales," commonly called Mrs. Fitzherbert.' A large impression of this pamphlet he sent for publication to Mr. Ridgway, bookseller, York-street, St. James's Square; whom he charges with having suppressed it, in consequence of an application from a certain quarter. The affair, we are told, is soon to come before a court of justice.

Alfred Unmasked; or, the New Cataline. 8vo. 1s. Faulder.

This is intended as an Answer to the political parts of the preceding pamphlet; but either the author is not an antagonist of

of equal abilities, or the cause which he espouses is not equal to that of Alfred: for this production contains nothing more than trite observations on the late tedious contest in parliament.

An Important Narrative of Facts; in answer to the erroneous Statement, given by Dr. Withers in his Pamphlet of Alfred. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway.

How far this Narrative may be important to Mr. Ridgway, we know not; but to the public, it cannot be considered as in any very great degree interesting. It comprises the correspondence between Dr. Withers and Mr. Ridgway, on the subject of the pamphlet which the latter is charged with having suppressed.

Reflections on the Consequences of His Majesty's Recovery from his late Indisposition; In a Letter to the People of England. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons.

His Majesty's late indisposition had opened some prospects, to the disappointment of which the expectants cannot easily be reconciled. The author now before us appears to be one of this class. He affects an almost invincible scepticism with regard to the fact of his Majesty's happy recovery. If the general rejoicings through the kingdom cannot remove his infidelity, we would, for conviction, recommend him to the lord of the bed-chamber in waiting, to be introduced into the royal presence. If this should not have the desired effect, we next recommend him to the care of Dr. Willis.

The Letter to the most Insolent Man Alive, answered. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

Petulance and malignity were the characteristics of the Letter to the most Insolent Man alive, and they are likewise the predominant blemishes of the present pamphlet, which, indeed, is nothing more than a series of invectives from beginning to end. The object of the author's reprehension is not once named in the pamphlet; but it is impossible that any reader who is conversant in the history of the times, can mistake the identity of the person. We shall only observe, that if the author's suspicion be well founded, he has retaliated with a severity which may claim some degree of indulgence. In respect of argument, or rather the want of it, never two productions were more upon an equality than the Letter and the Answer.

Seven Letters to the People of Great Britain. By a Whig. 8vo. 2s. Stockdale.

These Letters have already appeared in the Public Advertiser, under the signature of A Whig. They were written during the late important debates in parliament, and contain strictures on the public conduct of the leaders of Opposition, whom the author describes historically, as regenado whigs.

Copy of a Declaration and Articles subscribed by the Members of Administration. 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

A political squib, ingeniously compounded by some zealous friend of the minority; but smells too much of artifice to produce the intended effect.

Letters from a Country Gentleman to a Member of Parliament, on the Present State of the Nation. The Fifth Edition. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Stockdale.

In these two Letters, the author, after a very cursory retrospect of public affairs in England, during the seventeenth century, proceeds to deliver his sentiments on the conduct and principles of opposition; examines the question of Right, lately advanced in parliament; and urges the absolute necessity of an explicit and public disavowal on the part of his royal highness the prince of Wales, of any marriage-ceremony having taken place between him and a certain lady who is mentioned. Though the author appears to entertain a very unfavourable opinion of Opposition, he writes with becoming coolness; but the Letters consist more of observations than arguments. In the edition we use of the pamphlet, a letter is added to the duke of Portland, with whom the author expostulates freely on some late transactions.

Important Facts and Opinions relative to the King. 4to. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

This pamphlet consists of a collection from the examination of the royal physicians, arranged under proper heads. It appears to be compiled with fidelity; but the period at which the subject was interesting to the public, is now happily past.

The Fall of Faction; or, Edmund's Vision, which soars to the Beautiful and Sublime; and in which the Mystery of a certain Marriage is clearly explained. 4to. 2s. 6d. Walter.

This pamphlet is otherwise entitled, 'Edmund's Vision,' which, we are told, soars to the sublime and beautiful. These circumstances are sufficient to point out the person alluded to. The Vision presents the picture of an assembly at C—l—on House, exulting in the prospects of a speedy change of the ministry; when lo! there arrives intelligence of his majesty's recovery, and the dreamer becomes frantic with despair. The author thinks it 'a choice morsel for the patriots;' and, for our part, we believe it will not sicken them.

The Speech of the Right Honourable W. W. Grenville, Speaker of the House of Commons, in the Committee on the State of the Nation, January 16, 1789. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

In this Speech, which relates to the plan of regency, lately agitated in parliament, Mr. Grenville delivers, with great perspicuity, his opinion respecting the resolutions proposed in the committee; explaining, at the same time, the principles and enforcing the arguments, on which his opinion was founded.

It

It is scarcely necessary to add, that Mr. Grenville was one of the majority on those important resolutions.

Major Scott's Charge against the Right Honourable Edmund Burke, February 6, 1789. 8vo. 6d. Stockdale.

This Charge is extracted from the preface to the third edition (just published) of major Scott's "Reply to Mr. Sheridan's Comparative View of the India Bills of Mr. Fox and Mr. Pitt."

'I pledge myself, says Mr. Scott, as a gentleman and a man of honour, to prove, if Mr. Burke will call upon me to do so, that every syllable which he uttered upon the subject of Deby Sing, as it respected Mr. Hastings, was unfounded, and that he knew it to be so at the time he spoke in Westminster-hall.

'I pledge myself also to prove, that the horrid act which he stated, and which modesty will not permit me to repeat, never were committed at all, as appeared, after the fullest and most serious investigation, which was made and recorded, during the government of sir John Macpherson.'

This is the substance of the Charge.

D I V I N I T Y.

Slave-Trade. A Sermon, preached at Stonehouse Chapel, on Sunday December 28, 1788. By John Bidlake, A. B. 4to. 1s. Law.

Mr. Bidlake's text is that excellent and comprehensive precept of Christ, 'Whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so to them.' His principal object, however, is a description of the slave-trade in all its branches; and he repeats, with the true narrative, all the exaggerated descriptions of interested deceivers, all the horrors which have excited the humane and benevolent, to join in the same design. We can praise him with more cheerfulness, when, in the conclusion, he dwells on the injustice, and perhaps, when he expatiates on the impolicy, of the slave-trade. What he says on these subjects is well founded; and, on the whole, if we except the language of an eager partizan, though of a partizan in a good cause, we can commend this Sermon as an elegant and practical discourse.

An Essay on the Transfiguration of Christ. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

In this concise and judicious Essay, the author endeavours to explain his opinion of the intent and meaning of the transfiguration, as well as to remove some difficulties which may attend it. He thinks it 1st. a visible and figurative representation of the future resurrection, and Christ's coming in glory to judge the world and to reward his faithful disciples; 2d. as a symbol of the cessation of the Jewish, and a commencement of the Christian dispensation.

The immediate purpose of this representation, for which our Saviour had prepared his disciples, by the discourse recorded immediately before it, was to correct the prejudice of the Jews,

in favour of a temporal Messiah; and by this solemn sight, to give a dignity and force to the establishment of the Christian religion. Our author remarks also, that the transfiguration is one of the additional proofs of the divine mission of our Saviour, and is worthy of our regard, since it is one of the few instances of the miraculous visible interposition of God, in support of the great design of redemption.

A Sermon, preached in the Cathedral Church of Lincoln, on Sunday the 14th of September, 1788, before the Governors of the County Hospital. By the Rev. Thomas Willis, LL. B. 4to. 1s. Nourse.

On a subject so trite and hackneyed as charity in support of an hospital, we can scarcely expect novelty, except in the language; yet Mr. Willis enforces the usual arguments with great perspicuity and elegance.

Man incapable of spiritual Fervour and Discernment without the illuminating Presence of his Saviour: maintained and illustrated, in a Discourse, from that singular and beautiful Passage, St. Luke xxiv. 32. Preached in the Year 1788. By a Youth. Printed by particular Desire, being esteemed very seasonable and useful for these Times. 12mo. 4d. Parsons.

This youth possesses the warmth and eagerness of his early age, with a little of its incorrectness, and some of the information of a more mature period. In general, however, this Sermon is calculated for the Tabernacle rather than the Established Church.

A Letter addressed to the Rev. Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. By a Lover of the whole Truth as it is in Jesus. 8vo. 6d. Trapp.

The author, we suspect Mr. Nicholson, from whom we received the Evangelical Sermons, expostulates with Dr. Priestley on the unreasonableness of his opinions, and on the little coincidence between them and the Scripture-doctrine. He is soundly and completely orthodox.

P O E T R Y.

The Sick Laureat, or Parnassus in Confusion: a Poem. In which the Merits and Defects of some of our principal Modern Poets are examined and ascertained. 4to. 2s. Kearsley.

When the Laureat is sick, or dead, since the days of the duke of Buckingham, it has been common to introduce the different poets, as candidates for the laurel, to explain their various pretensions, and to dismiss them with some slight satire, or more pointed censure. In the rich repast of wit and humour, the Probationary Odes, the design was carried farther, and poetical merits were obliged to submit to political prejudices. Our present author brings us back to the first plan; but he introduces the earl of Salisbury as the representative of Apollo. His poetry

is not above mediocrity: he often 'limps in shocking measure;' but his judgment, with a few exceptions, is sufficiently correct; and where his powers will permit, his imitations are good. We shall select the few lines which introduce Mr. Pratt and his pretensions.

'Derby dismiss'd, Pratt next advanc'd to speak;
Once Courtney Melmoth ('twas a childish freak).
With honey'd flattery, his long practis'd trade,
His soft attack upon the peer he made:
"Illustrious son of an illustrious sire,
Whom poet's worship, and whom all admire;
In ev'ry feature of thy godlike face
Shines Attic wit, true judgment, sense, and grace.
Thy lovely wife, just in her youthful prime,
Calls in no art to hide the chinks of time;
No art she wants, in maiden transports wild;
She's just between the woman and the child."

Tears of Loyalty, or, Portrait of a Prince. A Poem. Inscribed to the Prince of Wales. 4to. 1s. 6d. Bell.

Grief for his majesty's indisposition, and joy that we are to have so illustrious a successor, alternately chequer this performance. His majesty's recovery has, we doubt not, dissipated the author's sorrow, and afforded unmixed pleasure to the prince and people.

A Poetical Epistle to a Falling Minister; also an Imitation of the Twelfth Ode of Horace. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Kearsley.

Alas, poor Peter! Though a poet and a prophet were once synonymous, thou hast proved no conjuror: though thy keen steel was wont to cut so smoothly, that the person wounded scarcely felt the pain, thou hast now changed it for a tomohawk. Furious indignation has furnished thee with a pen, and the blackest gall with ink: we hope you are better after this profuse evacuation. Cheerly, good Peter, for it must have been very serviceable! and it is particularly fortunate that it came in good time, since the late events would have rendered thee so choleric;—but we will not stir the bile again, for it may escape in another supplicating Epistle to the Reviewers.

Our whole corps are again reconciled, for not a word is now offered in the poet's favour: we can truly say, that, in this whole Epistle, there is not one line, one sentiment, which Peter's best friends would chuse to remember: there are many which his worst enemies will never forget. We will not, from pity, perpetuate a single word by transcribing it.

The Antagonists of Peter Pindar cut into Atoms, in a furious Epistle to Peter Pindar, Esq. By Tomb Plumb. 4to. 1s. 6d. Kearsley.

'One, from all Grub-street, will my fame defend,
And more abusive calls himself my friend.'

In good truth, this friendship might have been properly employed in other ways; and Mr. Thomas Plumb might have wrapt up perfumes and spice (thus et odores) in his manuscript, without either Peter or the world having reason to utter the slightest complaint. We have been a little offended with Peter; but our indignation against his defender almost annihilates our displeasure against him.

‘A vile encomium doubly ridiculous,
There’s nothing blackens like the ink of fools.’

Adversity; or, the Tears of Britannia. A Poem, by a Lady. With a beautiful emblematical Etching of a celebrated Poet on Horseback. 4to. 2s. Kirby.

It is not easy, from the title, to say what is the subject of these lines; and it is less easy to explain it, after having read them. Washington, André, lord North, lord Heathfield, Mr. Pitt, Peter Pindar, doctor Heberden, with a long &c. are introduced in hobbling verse, as the subject of praise or blame. Mr. Pitt and Peter Pindar are indeed both praised and blamed so much, that whichever side of Fortune’s wheel shall at last come uppermost, our fair authoress may pretend that she was right. She dreads indeed the lash of Peter, but, in the true school-boy style, says,

‘The smart once o’er, methinks I should not grieve.’

In short, as we cannot comprehend the author’s design, or praise the execution, for some of the lines are mutilated, and others are equally injured by redundant limbs, we shall transcribe a short quotation:

‘Virtue, bright nymph, too seldom seen,
Save always with our gracious queen.
Would her example influenc’d more!—
Then these our days, like those of yore,
Would more with wedded bliss abound,
And parting pairs be seldom found:—
Here Hymen sheds his brightest rays,
And equal gilds increasing days;
When often blam’d by wedded strife,
Where wife plagues husband—husband wife,—
You, friends, says Hymen, gad about,
Neglect the flame until ’tis out,
Then blame poor me, alas! too late.—
I sometimes fan, but not create.’

In short, metre, sense, grammar, and consistency are sacrificed in every page: some of the lines too are such, that for third credit of the ladies, we hope Eliza, the name at the end of the dedication, is an error either of the press or the pen.

Elegy written on the Author's revisiting the Place of his former Residence. 4to. 1s. Law.

Few minds are so callous as not to be affected by some sadly-pleasing sensations, a soothing kind of melancholy, on reviewing, after a long absence, the abode of their infancy, or scenes in which a considerable part of their lives had been spent in tranquillity and content. Our author has endeavoured to describe these feelings; whether from experience or observation we know not, but in general he has been extremely successful.

Ode respectfully addressed to Lord Belgrave, on his coming to Age, March 22, 1788. And a Congratulatory Song, on the Celebration of it, September 18, 1788. The Second Edition. To which is now added, a Description of Eaton, the Seat of Earl Grosvenor. And a concise Account of the Festive Day. By T. Minshull. 4to. 1s. Robinsons.

This Ode and Congratulatory Song may, considered as the effusions of esteem or gratitude, be not unpleasing to the noble lord to whom they are dedicated. The critical examiner will not be so easily satisfied; and will probably suspect that 'the twenty-one years old *October*' (we follow Mr. Minshull in his Italics) which according to ancient custom was produced on the occasion, contributed more towards the inspiration of his Muse than the fountain of Helicon.

Miscellaneous Pieces, original and collected by a Clergyman. 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Nicol.

These compositions are written in tolerable versification, but discover nothing of the enthusiasm of poetry.

A Brief and Poetical Declaration from a Recovering Minister to his Friends. By the right hon. William Pitt. 4to. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

An attempt to burlesque some ministerial characters: not abounding in humour, and yet not tiresome by prolixity.

M E D I C A L.

An Attempt to ascertain the Causes of the K—g's present Illness; with a new Method of treating it, applicable to all who suffer in like Manner: most humbly recommended, by a dutiful Subject. Written in November 1788. 4to. 1s. Robson.

This Attempt is, in part, a commentary on Dr. Willis's evidence before the Privy Council, and contains the hackneyed routine of too much exercise, too great abstinence, and too little sleep. Our author, who hints that he is no physician, sufficiently shows it in his method of cure. We shall transcribe one short paragraph:

'If the pulse be very quick, and the heat of the skin and drought be very oppressive, the bark in powder would be very salutary. The time and manner of taking it,—thrice, (beginning early in the morning) before dinner, but not after it, a tea-spoonful at a time, and in any liquid preferably to port wine: peppermint,

permint, or cinnamon-water, are proper to mix it with. If the nice eye be offended, or the squeamish stomach inclined to reject bark in powder, *the best substitute would be Huxham's Tincture of it carefully prepared after his own receipt.* If laudanum be given to encourage sleep, the greatest care should be taken to prevent the effects of it *suddenly going off*, by giving a dish of *strong coffee*, or a small bason of clear beef or mutton-tea with spice in it, directly after waking. Nothing is so difficult to administer properly as this medicine; nor is there any one thing that may frustrate the cure so completely, as the wrong method of applying it. Given how it will, it *never fails to disorder any head for a time after waking.*

We are now happily relieved (Feb. 18th.) from projects and projectors, by the declaration of his Majesty being in a state of convalescence. We hope that no return of his malady will draw forth the attempts of loyal volunteers in medicine, or again convert physicians into politicians, who will see only what they wish.

An Essay on the Fracture of the Patella or Kneecap. With Observations on the Fracture of the Olecranon. By John Sheldon, F. R. S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

We are sorry to be obliged to remind authors, that they say only what has been said before, and to convict them without suspicion of plagiarism, of inattention to the progress of their profession. Mr. Sheldon, in a very prolix anatomical discussion, explains the origin, insertion, and uses of the different muscles connected with the patella, and shews, that to relax them completely the thigh must be kept in a bended state, at nearly half a right angle, with a little bending of the knee. All this, without the description of the muscles, M. Sabatier had said in the French Memoirs for the year 1783, page 760, and we had shortly pointed out in our LXVth volume, page 311. The two authors differ only in some very minute articles: M. Sabatier, with the necessary precaution of rest, thinks even bandages useless; Mr. Sheldon depends little on them, except in accidental motions at night. The former speaks of the bending of the knee as very slight: the latter is less explicit on this subject. We have tried the experiment, and find that the bending should be very inconsiderable if the motion of the patella remains free, or, in other words, if there is no action of the muscles connected with it; though it may be brought into that state of flexion which is consistent with the most perfect ease. We have no reason to say that Mr. Sheldon knew of M. Sabatier's Memoir; but a professor of anatomy is culpably careless, if any publication which is connected with his profession escapes his notice.

Fractures in the olecranon are treated in a similar way; and the muscles are kept in a relaxed state by extending the arm. A little

little plain common sense and an attention to the feelings, are sufficient to have taught this doctrine.

While we cannot consider the greater part of this pamphlet as new, we must add that our author's opinions are not detailed very advantageously. The anatomical part, as we have already hinted, is prolix, and it is also confused, if not inaccurate. A person not much versed in these discussions would follow Mr. Sheldon with great difficulty, if he could follow him at all. We have given our opinions with more freedom, because they can, on the one hand, do the author no great injury; and, on the other, may lead him to reflect, that men of great talents and extensive knowledge should be particularly cautious of risking their reputation by hasty and injudicious publications.

N O V E L S.

The Man of Failing, a Tale. Two Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

This Man of Failing, who, by the way is supposed to be a natural son of Sterne, commits many faults against his better judgment, and is, notwithstanding his errors, happy at last. His temporary sufferings are his only punishment. The author's manner is a little uncommon, in this age, and resembles that of the unsuccessful imitators of Fielding. In other respects this work deserves neither praise nor blame. It is too insignificant to draw on it the vengeance of criticism for its faults, and too trifling to demand praise when no faults can be discovered.

The Child of Woe. By Mrs. Elizabeth Norman. Three Volumes, 12mo. 7s. 6d. Symonds.

Though Mrs. Norman makes one of the correspondents say to Eliza, the Child of Woe, that she tells her story elegantly and pathetically, we cannot join in the commendation. The Language is turgid, and in some passages it is prose almost run mad. The contrivance is not greatly superior, and the characters are trifling and familiar. It is, on the whole, an insignificant and insipid work.

The History of Sir Charles Bentinck and Louisa Cavendish. By the Author of Laura and Augustus. Three Volumes. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Hookham.

We can perceive nothing in this history but a series of improbabilities, which constantly disgust, and of those trite hackneyed adventures which have been often related, and which have often lulled us to rest. We perceive, however, a little tendency of that spirit which we reprobated in Agnes de Courci, and which we shall continue to reprobate wherever we meet with it: we mean that fascinating description of the calm, quiet, retreat of a cloyster, a description which exists only in the visionary mind of a novel-writer, or the perverted imagination of a bigot. We should not have expressed ourselves so warmly, if we had not seen how easily the young mind is warped by descriptions

of this kind, and how soon the best impressions are effaced by these seducing glosses. Let the novellist of every kind beware how he offend in this way again.

Juliet; or, the Cottager. In a Series of Letters. By a Lady. Two Volumes. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

The adventures are trite, hackneyed, trifling, and insipid; the language is often inaccurate; and, from the whole, we cannot extract a word, a character, or a sentiment that we can commend. There is much faultless dulness, and the morality is sufficiently pure; but 'no farther this deponent sayeth.'

MISCELLANEOUS.

Observations on the three last Volumes of the Roman History, by Edward Gibbon; Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

After having enlarged on the merits and defects of Mr. Gibbon, we need not follow our author very closely. His observations are frequently just; but, on some occasions, he seems to have been too eager to find fault; some faults he has at least exaggerated, and made that reprehensible which may more justly be considered as venial. On the whole, however, his regard for morality and religion, as well as his good sense, in general, render his criticisms truly respectable.

A Letter addressed to Dr. Priestley, Messrs. Cavendish, Lavoisier, and Kirwan; endeavouring to prove, that their newly adopted Opinions of Inflammable and Dephlogisticated Airs, forming Water; and the Acids being compounded of the different Kinds of Air, are fallacious. By Robert Harrington, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Faulder.

To oppose the opinion of the composition of water is now to fight with a phantom; but, if Dr. Priestley had not already destroyed the existence of the theory, our author could not have effected it. He is vague in his ideas, and incorrect in his chemical judgment. If we were, however, inclined to follow his reveries, and oppose them, we must have resumed former works, which we did not think worth examining, for copious extracts are transcribed, and numerous references to them occur. The composition of acids is a subject on which the French chemists are more clear, and their opinions better founded; but even this we would at present avoid, with so hasty and inaccurate a guide, while late experiments seem to suggest views, in some respects different, though by no means opposite ones.

A Sketch of the Life and Character of the late Dr. Monsey, Physician to the Royal Hospital at Chelsea; with Anecdotes of Persons of the first Rank in Church and State. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Printed for the Author.

This careless Sketch, this characteristic outline, of a whimsical eccentric, but benevolent and respectable physician, displays the master's hand, and will afford much entertainment. We have read it with great pleasure; and, if our author will allow

allow us to except a little occasional indelicacy, or at least an approach to its confines, we can recommend it with confidence.

We intended to have extracted an anecdote to illustrate Dr. Monsey's morose severity, or his ill-natured sarcasms, and perhaps others, which would have displayed his kindness, his generosity, or his excentricity. But, when we again turned over the leaves for a more careful selection, we could not resist preferring the very expressive and comprehensive reasoning of the biographer, which indeed relates to his subject, but which does more honour to himself. This extract shall conclude our article.

‘As a biographer, without a view to improvement, performs a nugatory task, and his readers at best have but unprofitable amusement, the life of Monsey may perhaps afford a not unuseful lesson to young and enterprising men of genius and learning.

‘He had been educated in a profession which, even in the country, might have rendered him, if not a brilliant, an useful and respectable member of society.

‘Roused by the enticing voices of ambition, luxury, and ease, he deserted the post in which Providence had placed him: he rushed on the wings of hope to the metropolis.

‘Endowed with strong discernment, possessed of no ordinary share of knowledge both of books and men, he took a satirical turn, and attempted to correct shabby enormity, to reform the abandoned, the impertinent, and the vain.

‘After a pause, let us ask the following questions:—Did he in general effect his purpose?—Does it appear that his change of situation advanced him on the road of happiness?—Did his rare talents elevate him to any great or lucrative employment?—Did his learning and powers in conversation make him more feared or loved?—In a word, did they contribute to smooth his passage through life?—After considering these questions, the humble man may perhaps look up with thankfulness to Providence for blessing him with content, and the ignorant and unlearned cease to complain of not being initiated in those dangerous arts which so often tend to diminish the happiness of our neighbours as well as ourselves.’

CORRESPONDENCE.

WE are sorry to be obliged to inform the gentleman who begs our advice in private, that, if we were to comply with his request, it would subject us to numerous inconveniencies, since others, on the same foundation, might expect similar indulgence, which neither our avocations nor our situation would permit us to grant. We shall keep the object of his petition in our view, and he may find occasional assistance in our succeeding Numbers.

WE sincerely lament the situation of the lady who requests our indulgence respecting her promised work; but no private

CON-

considerations can interfere with our public conduct. If her circumstances occur in the moment, and blunt the edge of criticism, we must say so; but it would be doubly cruel to commend where we ought to blame. We hope that there will be no occasion for even this reserve; and that we shall be able to praise conscientiously as critics, and cheerfully as men.

E R R A T A.

The inclemency of the weather making our communication with the authors of some of the articles in our last Number difficult, we are obliged to mention, and to offer this apology for, the most important Errata.

Page 51, line 10 *from the bottom*, for spheres and attraction, read spheres of attraction.—P. 59, l. 13, *instead* rather to hinder, read rather not to hinder.—P. 66, l. 7, for cratægus, read cratægus.—Ibid. l. 13, for coloneaster, read cotoneaster.—P. 67, l. 23, for kinder, read rinder.—P. 68, l. 14, for konge, read kongl.—P. 69, l. 1, for aerel, read acrel.—Ibid. l. 34, for omitted, for classical readers, read omitted. Our classical readers.—P. 70, l. 14, for orpas, read ornâs.

We must also mention one or two errors, which arose from accident in our last number. The note on the horseleach, from Dr. Hodgson's translation of the Proverbs of Solomon, was omitted by the compositor: we shall now subjoin it.

‘The horseleach hath two daughters, crying, give, give. There are three things that are never satisfied, yea, four things say not, it is enough.

‘Whether the horseleach have two, three, or twenty daughters, seemeth not to be of the least importance to the passage; nor do I think that Solomon has mentioned any number. The word שתי translated “two,” means, I apprehend, iterant; iterant vocem, integrant clamorem, “are ever crying.” I consider it as the feminine plural, participle Benoni, from שנה iterare: struck him not again, doubled not his stroke. 2 Sam. xx. 10. repeateth. Prov. xvii. 9. they spake again. Job xxix. 22. and they did it the second time, 1 Kings viii. 34.

‘Now the regular plural of the participle Benoni is שנים masculine, שנות feminine. So, שנים duo, should regularly make the feminine שנות, but instead thereof, it makes שתי, as appears in the following passages. Gen. iv. 19. xix. 8. Exod. xii. 7. xxvii. 7. Lev. iii. 4. iv. 9. If in the above places, and many more that might be pointed out, שתי be the feminine of שנים duo; for what reason shall not שתי in this passage, be the feminine of שנים repetentes?

‘The gradation of the irregularity is this.

שנותים : שנותי : שנתתי : שתי

‘See שתי and שנים masculine and feminine terminations in the same word. Prov. xvi. 3. in כחשבתך.

‘We must be indebted to the Arabic for the meaning of עלוקה, which word no where else occurs in the Bible.

על dependit, adhæsit.

על hirudo, sanguisuga. Gol. A horse-leach. Richardson.

‘The particle of similitude כ, is here omitted, as in a great number of other places. Prov. xxvii. 17. xxvii. 20. xv. 30.

As the progeny of the horseleach cry ever give, give;

So are there three things which never are satisfied,

Yea four, which never say, enough.

Page 131, line 10 *from the bottom*, read the name of tungsten is now, we believe, generally used.—P. 132, l. 25, for it will, read the former will.